

BLACKIE'S SENIOR HISTORIES

General Editor

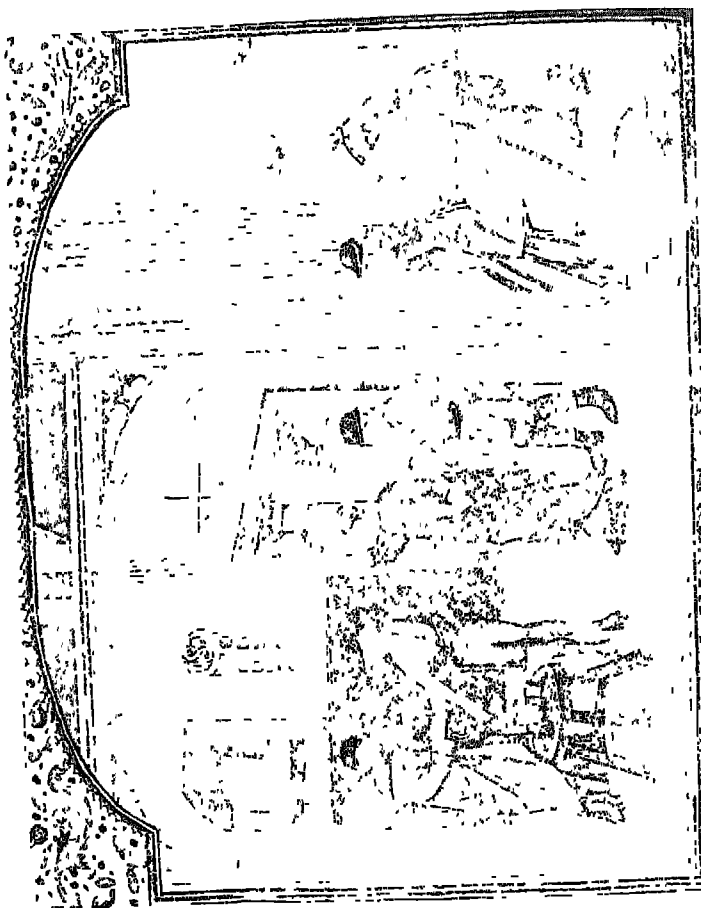
ALFRED FLAVELL, M A.

Formerly Inspector of Schools, Birmingham

BOOK ONE

ENGLAND IN EARLY TIMES

JANTA BOOK DEPOT
23/1 LADY HARDINGE ROAD,
NEW DELHI.



A Doctor's House in the fifteenth century. On the left a patient is being examined, and on the right two patients are arriving

BOOK ONE

ENGLAND IN EARLY
TIMES

55 B.C. – A.D. 1485

BY

MARION FLAVELL

Formerly Head Mistress of Windsor Street Girls' School, Birmingham

AND

S. E. MATTS

Head Master of Gower Street Secondary Modern School, Birmingham

BLACKIE & SON LIMITED
LONDON AND GLASGOW

BLACKIE & SON LIMITED
66 Chandos Place, London
17 Stanhope Street, Glasgow
BLACKIE & SON (INDIA) LIMITED
103/5 Fort Street, Bombay
BLACKIE & SON (CANADA) LIMITED
Toronto

First issued 1935
Reprinted 1935, 1937, 1940, 1942, 1944,
1945, 1947, 1949, 1950

PREFACE

This book can have no better introduction than the following extract from the *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*

"Self-education should be the key-note of the older children's curriculum, just as free expression is of the youngest children's; but in neither case is it expected that the teacher will abdicate

"On the contrary, his work under the conditions which he will seek to establish is in some ways more difficult, certainly more delicate, than in the collective class lessons, varied by collective class questioning which have hitherto formed the staple of instruction, and must of course always have a place in it

"If he is to deal properly with the private study of a senior class, he must know thoroughly the ground that is to be covered, *he must provide or suggest the exercises or problems to be attacked, and he must satisfy himself subsequently that what has been done by the individual scholar is really grasped*

"Work on these lines obviously requires the provision of suitable books; without a good historical textbook and atlas, for instance, private study of history or geography is impossible

"A school library of good works of reference for use by teachers and scholars is of great value

"But however excellent books or equipment may be, the instruction will only have its full effect when the teacher

realizes that his *chief task is to teach the scholars to teach themselves* and adapts his methods steadily to that end."

It will readily be seen that every provision has been made in this book for the scholar to work on the lines suggested by the Board of Education.

From the practical experience of the authors, it has been proved to be the most effective way of training pupils "to teach themselves"

We suggest the following plan to the teacher as a general guide to the routine to be adopted

1 *An oral lesson* should be given by the teacher at the beginning of each period's work, to arouse the interest of the pupil and to introduce the subject-matter

2 *Note-making from selected headings*—These headings will put the child right as to the essentials for his note-making, ensure that nothing important is omitted, provide an orderly and useful revision book for the scholar at the end of the term, and be a permanent record worth keeping by the child

3 *General arrangement of notes*—Scholars should be encouraged to obtain pictures, to make drawings, and to trace maps, which illustrate the period they are studying. This will stimulate their interest and make their note-books more attractive and useful. They should also make notes of any additional details not mentioned in the textbook, which they may obtain from the books recommended for reference purposes and general reading. The note-books must be marked by the teacher

4. *The actual study of the period's history*—This will call for close supervision by the teacher, who must always be ready to guide the pupils or to explain difficulties

5. *Answering questions in the exercises on the subject-matter and the extracts*—This should be done without reference to the text. It will thus be a test of the work done during the period.

CONTENTS

	Page
NOTES ON THE ILLUSTRATIONS - - - - -	9
FIRST PERIOD <i>Britain at the time of Julius Cæsar</i> The Roman Empire and Rome—Romans in Britain—Effects of Roman rule—Time chart of events—Headings and hints for notes—Exercises—Extracts—Exercises on Extracts—Books for reference and additional reading -	15
SECOND PERIOD <i>The Coming of the English</i> Angles, Saxons, and Jutes—Offa's dyke—An English village—Northumbria, Meicla, and Wessex—Coming of Christianity—The Witanagemot—Time chart of events, &c, as in first period - - - - -	28
THIRD PERIOD <i>Alfred's Struggle against the Danes</i> Egbert and the Danes—Alfred the Great—What he did for England—From Alfred to the Norman Conquest—Time chart, &c, as in former periods - - - - -	45
FOURTH PERIOD <i>The Norman Conquest and Feudalism</i> Edward the Confessor—Harold and William, Duke of Normandy—Battle of Hastings—Rebellions against William—The Feudal System—How William gave peace to England—Time chart, &c, as in former periods -	58
FIFTH PERIOD <i>Later Norman Kings</i> William Rufus—How he extorted money—Invasion of Wales—Henry I and the Church—How he governed England—Life in Norman England—A Norman Manor—Headings and hints for notes, &c, as in former periods - - -	75
SIXTH PERIOD <i>The Monasteries</i> How the monks lived—Description of Monastery—Francis of Assisi and the Friars—Henry II, the first Plantagenet—His dominions—Ireland—Restoration of order—Henry and Becket—Constitutions of Clarendon—The Crusades—Richard I and the First Crusade—Effects of the Crusades—Headings and hints for notes, &c, as in former periods	91

	Page
SEVENTH PERIOD <i>Magna Carta and the growth of Parliament</i>	
John and Prince Arthur—John and the Pope—Stephen Langton and Magna Carta—Henry III—The regency—Simon de Montfort—The Provisions of Oxford—Civil war—Edward I and Parliament—Edward as law-giver and organizer—The Model Parliament—Headings and hints for notes, &c., as in former periods - -	112
EIGHTH PERIOD <i>Wales and Scotland</i> The Welsh people—Border wars—Edward I and Llewellyn—The first Prince of Wales—The Maid of Norway—Edward and Balliol—William Wallace—Robert the Bruce—Edward II and Scotland—Bannockburn—Independence of Scotland—Edward III and Scotland—Time chart, &c , as in former periods - - - - -	130
NINTH PERIOD <i>England and France</i> Causes of the Hundred Years' War—Age of chivalry—Sluys—New methods of fighting—Treaty of Bretigny—The Black Death—Effects of the plague—The Peasants' revolt and Richard II—Towns and their gilds—How the towns obtained their charters—Merchant gilds and Craft gilds—Headings and hints for notes, &c , as in former periods - - - - -	147
TENTH PERIOD <i>End of the Middle Ages</i> John Wycliffe and the Lollards—Chaucer's Canterbury Tales—The Vision of Piers Plowman—Parliament of the Middle Ages—Richard II's misgovernment—His deposition—Henry IV of Lancaster—Rebellions—Persecution of the Lollards—Henry V and the Hundred Years' War—Joan of Arc—Wars of the Roses—Jack Cade's rebellion—Warwick the King-maker—Introduction of Printing—Edward V and Richard III—Bosworth Field—Time chart of events, &c , as in former periods - - -	168

NOTES ON THE ILLUSTRATIONS

- Ancient Britons in their Chariot** (p 16) The Chariot is drawn from material suggested by the British Museum. There seems to be no archæological authority for the idea that scythes were fixed to the wheels.
- A Roman Fort** (p 21) This is from a drawing by A. Forestier. It shows Fort Borcovicium on Hadrian's Wall. The almost complete plan of the fort (now known as Housesteads) was revealed by aerial photography.
- A Scene in Wroxeter** (p 23) The basis of this drawing by A. Forestier was the result of recent excavations at Wroxeter in Shropshire on the site of the Roman Viroconium.
- A Fifth Century Warrior** (p 31) Reconstructed from material in *Costume and Fashion* by Herbert Norris, and other sources. He wears a tunic of woollen material and a cuirass of scales fixed to a leather foundation. The shield is of wood decorated with bronze and iron. The legs are bound with studded leather straps, and primitive shoes are worn on the feet.
- An English Settlement** (p 32) This is an imaginary drawing, but it illustrates the text on page 33.
- The Lindisfarne Gospel** (p 38) The "Lindisfarne" Gospel-Book is in the British Museum. It was written at Lindisfarne "for God and S. Cuthbert" by Eadfrith, who was bishop of that see, A.D. 698-721, and adorned with paintings by the monk Aethelwald. The small writing between the lines is a translation of the Latin in Northumbrian dialect—this was added about the middle of the tenth century.
- Northmen, or Danes** (p 46) The chief in the foreground wears a coat of mail made of leather and covered with metal plates or iron rings sewn closely together. The legs are covered with "bracco" (drawers) cross-gartered all the way up the leg. The helmet was of iron with large bulls' horns attached.
- The Tower of a Saxon Church** (p 51) This is the oldest part of the church built by Benedict, Bishop at Monkwearmouth. The whole tower shows the "long and short" work and the baluster mullions of the Saxon period of architecture.
- Coin of Canute** (p 53). The silver penny was introduced by Ofta, King of Mercia (757-796). The pennies were usually cut into halves and quarters along the lines of the cross to make small change.

A Mounted Norman Knight (p 59) He wears a conical iron helmet with a nose piece His coat of mail or hauberk was made of leather, on which were sown flat iron rings It was slit up at the back for convenience in horse riding Under the hauberk was worn a tunic of linen or wool The legs were covered with thick stockings or trousers with feet, made of cloth and cross-gartered with leather

A Norman Castle (p 64) This is a reconstruction drawing by Sydney R Jones The flight of rough steps up to the keep is as those still existing at Carisbrooke

The Great Hall (p 67) This is a reconstruction drawing by Sydney R Jones, and is modelled on the hall in Castle Hedingham, Essex, which was built about 1130 On the entrance level was the guard-room, perhaps also used as a kitchen Above this on the second floor was the Great Hall with its galleries around The staircase was in one of the angles of the keep

The hall was surrounded by walls about ten feet thick, and in the thickness were little rooms which were used as bedchambers by the members of the family The servants slept in the hall The windows had no glass There were no chimneys, the flue being carried at an angle through the wall Lavatories were in the thickness of the walls and the sewage fell down a stone shaft into the moat

Science and Commerce (p 68) Reproduced from a miniature in a Psalter of the thirteenth century in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris

Costume of Norman Times (p 79) The figure on the left shows a man of the time of William I, perhaps an attendant about the castle He wears a tunic with a leather belt, under which was the shirt The cloak is fastened with a metal ring, the ends of the cloak being pulled through and tied with a knot.

The next figure is a lady of rank On her head she wears a wimple over which is the veil, kept in place by a metal circlet

The next lady wears sleeves of such large dimensions that they were knotted to prevent them trailing on the ground this is an extravagance which came into fashion in the reign of Henry I

The little girl is dressed like the grown-ups

The next figure (fifth from left) is taken from an illumination of the time of William II

The figure on the extreme right is a soldier who wears a hauberk of overlapping pieces of metal sown on to leather

Shoes, during Norman times, followed the shape of the foot, but at the end of the eleventh century long pointed boots and shoes came into fashion for a time

- A Manor-House** (p 83) A reconstruction drawing by Sydney R Jones. This is really a thirteenth-century manor-house, but it may be accepted as similar to the twelfth-century house.
- Farm Workers** (p 85) Reproduced from a miniature in a thirteenth-century Psalter preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. Notice the use of oxen. The plough is fitted with a coulter and share, but no wheels.
- Fountains Abbey** (p 92) The ruins of the Cistercian Monastery near Ripon in Yorkshire. Building began in 1135, and was continued until the middle of the thirteenth century.
- Francis of Assisi** (p 95) A photograph of a statue in Milan.
- Bishop and Clergy of the Twelfth Century** (p 101) Taken from a twelfth-century drawing illustrating the life of St Guthlac. The bishop is in his sacerdotal dress, consisting of the albe, tunic, dalmatic, and chasuble. He carries a pastoral staff.
- English Ship of the Twelfth Century** (p 105) From a model in the Science Museum, South Kensington, London. Oak was generally used in the construction, the planking was worked flush and then caulked with moss, hair, and pitch. Temporary structures, or castles, at the bow and stern, and smaller "top-castles" at the masthead were erected for the use of the fighting men. A single mast carrying a large square sail was fitted, and steering was effected by a large oar on the right-hand or starboard side.
- The Coronation of a King** (p 117) Reproduced from an illuminated manuscript in the British Museum. The king is supposed to be Henry III.
- Salisbury Cathedral** (p 118) From a photograph. The foundations were laid in 1220, and the whole building was finished with the exception of the spire in 1258. The style of architecture is Early English.
- Costume of the Thirteenth Century** (p 120) The man on the left wears a Cyclas (an over-robe made of a single piece of material with holes for the head and arms). The next figure is the wife of a wealthy citizen in the reign of Henry III. The Camuse, or undergarment, is seen fastened at the throat by a brooch. Note the Barbette, or chin-strap whose ends were folded over each other on top of the head. On the head is the Coif. A network cap called a Crispine confines the hair. The third figure from the left is a noble of the time of Edward I. He wears a hood of a colour contrasting with that of his wide tunic. The point at the top of the hood has developed into a long tube called the Liripepe. This was sometimes coiled up on top of the head. The next man is wearing a Surcote over his tunic and he

is probably a clerk. The Surcote has a hood and is wide at the shoulder to form a cape-like sleeve. On his head is a cap fitting close to the head, tied under the chin, enclosing the hair except in front and at the nape of the neck.

The next man represents a merchant dressed in a Gard-carp of good stout linen worn for extra warmth.

The man with the Gypiere (purse or wallet) is a peasant. He wears a Cotte over which is a hood with a loose cape.

On the extreme right is a noble lady of the reign of Edward I. Notice the headgear—a Gorget worn over the Ramshorn hairdressing. The hair was parted in the middle, pleated, and then twisted over the ears like rams' horns. The gorget was of fine linen wrapped round the neck, draped up the sides of the face, and pinned over the ramshorns.

The little girl is clad in a Cotte over which is a Blaut or indoor tunic, cut wide and long in the skirt.

The House of Lords in the Time of Edward I (p. 124). From an engraving in Pinkerton's *Iconographia Scotica*, of a drawing formerly in the College of Arms. The drawing was made in the reign of Edward IV, and shows the House as it was supposed to have sat in 1277, when both the King of Scots and the Prince of Wales were present. Notice the Chancellor and Judges on the Woolsacks.

Harlech Castle (p. 133). From a photograph. The present castle dates from the time of Edward I.

Stirling Castle (p. 138). From an engraving in Slezer's *Theatrum Scotiae* published in 1693. Reproduced by permission of the National Library of Scotland.

Stirling Castle (p. 139). From a photograph. The view is taken from Abbey Craig, on the slopes of which Wallace took his stand at the Battle of Stirling Bridge, 1297. The view shows how the Castle commands the windings of the Forth.

Shooting at the Butts (p. 148). From an engraving of an illumination drawn in 1496. Archers are engaged in shooting with the arbalest, or cross-bow, at the parish butt. The butt had a white circle in the middle and the object of the archer was to place his arrow within the white. In the regulations for the use of the cross-bow, the archer was required to cry "Fast" before the discharge of his weapon.

French Soldier (p. 149). From a model in the Musée de l'Armée, Paris. A soldier of the army of Philip VI (of Valois).

One of Bertrand du Guesclin's Soldiers (p. 150). From the same source as the last subject.

The Death of Wat Tyler (p. 155). From an illumination in a fifteenth-century copy of Froissart's *Chronicles* in the British Museum.

- The Shambles** (p 158) From a photograph The name indicates that the butchers carried on their business here
- London in the Fourteenth Century** (p 160) From a drawing by A Forestier, in the London Museum The city wall with its gates can be seen The Tower is on the right, Old St Paul's is on the left, and London Bridge spans the river
- Craftsmen of the Fifteenth Century** (p 162) From a contemporary illumination in the British Museum
- The Canterbury Pilgrims** (pp 168 and 169) From a painting by Thomas Stothard in the National Gallery, Millbank, London
- The Tabard Inn** (p 171) From a drawing in the London Museum There is record of the original inn being in existence in 1602 After the Great Fire of 1666 it was practically rebuilt and named the Talbot, but the last vestiges of the old inn disappeared in 1874, when it was demolished
- Ploughing in the Fourteenth Century** (p 173) From a manuscript of the poems of *Piers Plowman* preserved in the Library of Trinity College, Cambridge In one of the beams of the plough is inserted the plough-mell, or mallet, often mentioned in old writings Above the illustration is the old couplet " God speed the plough and send us corn enough "
- A French Soldier** (p 178) From a model in the Musée de l'Armée, Paris A soldier of the army of Charles VII, belonging to a company of the first permanent troops in France The armour of the horse consists of a mixture of plate and mail
- Joan of Arc at the Relief of Orleans** (p 180) From the mural painting by Jules Lenepveu in the Pantheon at Paris
- Armour of the Fifteenth Century** (p 182) From the effigy of Sir Richard Vernon, who fought in the wars of Henry V and died in 1452 The armour consists almost entirely of plate, mail being used only as gussets for the protection of the joints The skirt consists of a series of steep splints or Taces The helm in this effigy is placed under the head
- Interior of a Printer's Workshop** (p 184) From an engraving by Johannes Stradanus in the Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris Johannes Stradanus was born in Bruges in 1523 Caxton's *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*, the earliest specimen of typography in the English language was probably printed at Bruges about 1474
- A Room of the Fifteenth Century** (p 186) From an illumination in the British Museum It shows Christine de Pisan presenting a book to Isabelle of Bavaria, Queen of France

FIRST PERIOD

BRITAIN AT THE TIME OF JULIUS CÆSAR

When Julius Cæsar invaded Britain in 55 B C., he found a country of fen and marshland—with dense forests covering most of its surface. He wrote an interesting account of the people who inhabited Britain, in which he tells us that the most civilized of them were those who lived in Kent. Here they tilled the ground, sowed corn, and wove cloth which they used for their rough garments.

Those dwelling farther inland, Cæsar's description tells us, lived on milk and flesh, and dressed in the skins of the wild animals they hunted.

To make themselves appear more terrible in battle, they painted their bodies with a blue dye called woad. When fighting they rode wildly hither and thither in chariots. To the wheels of these were fastened sharp knives to cut off the feet of the enemy.

In religion they were heathens, worshipping many gods to whom they offered human sacrifices. Their priests were called Druids, and were held in great honour.



Ancient Britons in their Chariot

The various tribes of the Britons were much given to warring with each other. Because of this it was not very difficult for Cæsar to conquer them.

He subdued the south-east by his first invasion in 55 B.C., and in the following year, 54 B.C., completed his conquest.

However, he did not remain long in Britain, returning to Rome after he had decided upon the amount of tribute to be paid by the Britons to Rome. He never came back, and it was nearly one hundred years before the Romans made a further attempt to conquer Britain.

The Second Roman Invasion

It was in A.D. 43, ten years after the death of Christ, that the Romans made the real conquest of Britain. Step by step the Britons were defeated, in spite of the resistance of such brave leaders as Caractacus and Boadicea.

Gradually the Britons were driven westward to the hills of Cornwall, Wales, and Cumberland, where the hilly nature of the land made them safe from further attacks. Then the Romans began to make themselves at home in Britain, and stayed in our land for nearly 400 years, until A.D. 410.

Roman Empire and Rome

Rome, in Italy, the original home of the Romans, began as a small village on the banks of the River Tiber, and gradually became a large city. Then the Romans attacked and conquered other parts of Italy, till the whole country was in their hands. Not satisfied with owning one country, the Romans attacked and overcame other countries, namely, Greece, Asia Minor, Spain, and North Africa. It was to this great empire that Britain belonged from A.D. 43 to A.D. 410.

It is interesting to know something about Rome, and how the Romans lived in their own country. All the towns built by the Romans were modelled on Rome itself, which was defended by a strong wall, broken here and there by well-fortified gateways. The principal street contained the shops of the merchants. Marble steps led up to beautiful stone temples, dedicated to the gods of the Romans.

The roofs of these buildings were supported by circular stone columns, richly ornamented. The floor was usually of mosaic work.

The wealthy nobles spent many hours at the public baths, which were much finer than many of ours to-day. They were supplied with hot and cold water, and contained rooms and courts for those wishing to do athletic exercises. The floors and walls were kept warm by central heating. In Rome the amphitheatre provided a large space for such sports as chariot racing, athletic games, and the contests of gladiators. Public fountains and triumphal arches, built by various emperors to celebrate their victories, also might be seen.

When a wealthy Roman gave a banquet to his friends, it was generally held in an upper room of his villa. This was a country house, built round a courtyard. In the centre of the courtyard there was generally a pool, supplied with water by beautiful fountains. Round the pool was a covered arcade, the roof of which was supported by circular stone columns. The lower rooms of the villa led on to this arcade.

The room in which the banquet was held was decorated with flowers. The chief piece of furniture was a huge carved table, laden with bronze and silver vessels containing food and drink. This table was surrounded on three sides with couches, where the guests reclined resting on one arm, while the food was passed round or served by slaves. The guests took off their sandals and togas when they arrived, and during the feast wore light dining robes.

Music, dancing, and other kinds of entertainment added to the enjoyment of the guests. At the end of the banquet, torchbearers would light their way home.

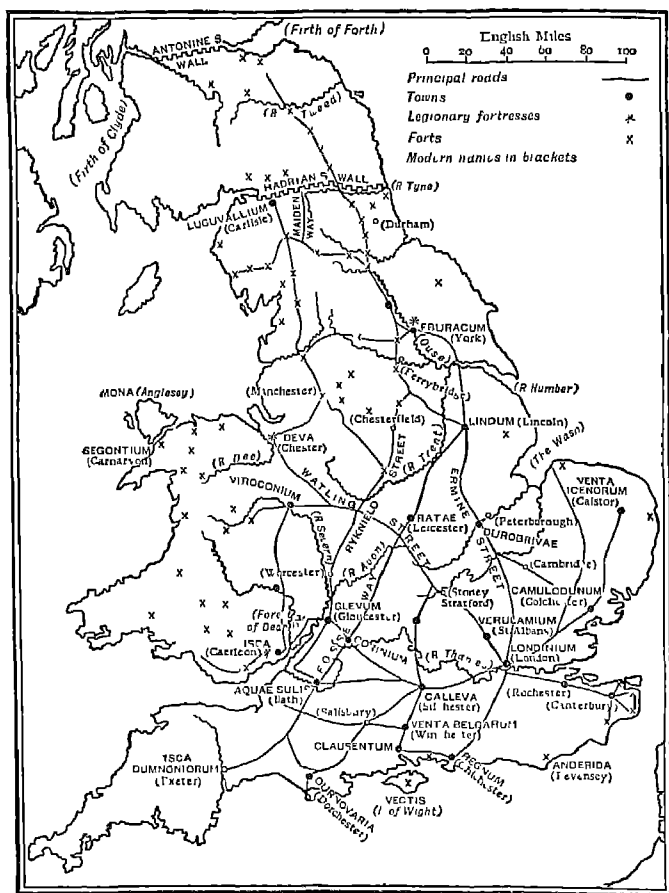
The Romans in Britain

When the Romans first arrived in Britain, they came through France, and had to cross the Channel in a fleet of ships manned by soldiers and slaves. Each ship was made of wood, and had a sail. The oars were arranged in three tiers, and to each oar slaves were chained. The slave master stood, whip in hand, on a central platform, in order to keep the slaves to their work. The ship was steered by means of an oar at the back of the vessel.

The first task of the Romans on their arrival was to see that they could get quickly from one part of the country to another, in order to quell any risings of the Britons. As a great part of the country was either forest or swamp land, this was no easy task, but roads were made as straight as possible.

These roads were made with a foundation of large stones, on which were placed two layers of smaller stones, with a top covering of flat stones. Along all Roman roads were milestones, and there were also inns where food and lodging could be obtained.

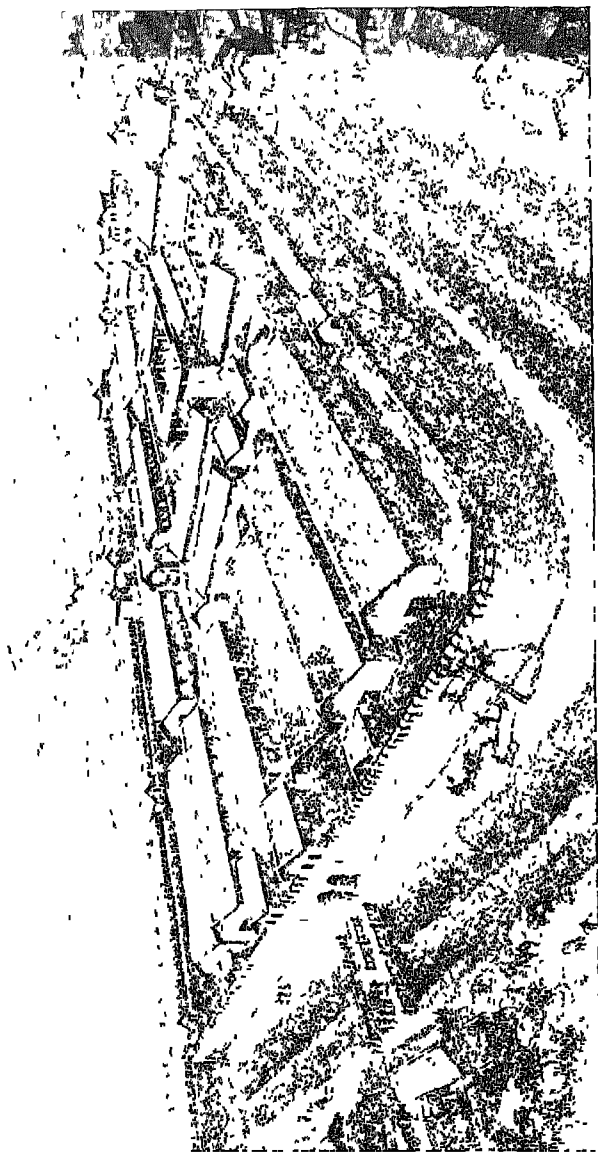
Four main roads traversed the whole of England. They were: Watling Street, Fosse Way, Ryknield Street, and Ermine Street. These were linked by secondary roads. Some portions of these Roman roads remain with us to-day, for example, the Fosse Way which runs from Axminster to Lincoln, and



Map of the Roads in Roman Britain

Watling Street, which runs from London to Chester, and then on to York (see map)

To defend the country from the Picts and Scots who dwelt in the north—present-day Scotland—a great wall was built from the River Tyne to the Solway Firth.



A Roman Fort on Hadrian's Wall Looking north

Gradually large towns were built on the pattern of Rome, already described. Generally, when a Roman camp was pitched, it became surrounded by people supplying its needs. These settled down as near as they could to a camp, and gradually a small township was formed, which grew and grew until it became a large town. As the Latin word for "camp" is "castra", we can easily see that places ending in "chester", "caster", "cester" and "xeter" were, long ago, the sites of Roman camps. The following are examples of this Colchester, Lancaster, Winchester, Worcester, and Exeter. One of the most famous of the Roman towns was Bath; and there to-day can still be seen the remains of the public baths built by the Romans.

Effects of Roman Rule

The Romans, as you have read, did a great deal to improve conditions in Britain. They gave peace to our land, protecting Britain from the Picts and other fierce tribes in the north. They built towns such as the Britons could not possibly have built. They made roads where before had been forests and swamps. They drained large tracts of country for the growth of corn, the production of which increased so rapidly that Britain was sometimes known as "the granary of the north".

As well as supplying their own needs at home, the Britons were able to export large quantities of corn to feed the Roman troops. Mining was carried on, and cloth was made.

The Romans were famous as "law-givers"; and



A scene in Wroxeter (Viroconium, see map on p 20) during Hadrian's reign The large building is the Forum or Market

24 BRITAIN AT THE TIME OF JULIUS CÆSAR

our laws to-day still show many traces of those of the Romans. Our very language has a great many words derived from Latin, the language of the Romans. Britain, under Roman rule, became rich and peaceful, and it was a sad day for the Britons when the Roman troops were recalled to help in the defence of their own land.

TIME CHART OF EVENTS

100 B C — A D 410

Year	Famous Events	Famous People
B C 100		
55-54	Coming of Julius Cæsar	Julius Cæsar.
A D 1	Birth of Christ	
33	Crucifixion of Christ	
43	Coming of the Romans	Caractacus—Boadicea
100		Hadrian.
200		
300		
400		
410	Romans leave Britain	

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

These are intended to guide you in your note making. The headings will help you to keep an orderly and complete record of the work you are studying. And your notes will prove useful for rapid revision at any time.

Try to expand the outline provided for you, so that nothing important which you have read is left out. Also, make your Note Book more interesting to yourself and your classmates, by pasting in it any suitable cuttings, pictures, and maps, from newspapers, magazines, and other available sources. You will then possess a little History Book of your own, complete with historical facts arranged in proper time order, and illustrated with extracts, pictures, and maps of your own selection.

1 BRITAIN

- (a) Fens—marshland and forests
- (b) The Britons—most civilized in Kent—corn—cloth for garments—further inland lived on flesh and milk—dressed in skins—painted bodies in battle—chariots—heathens—Druids

2 ROMANS AT HOME

- (a) Conquest—mention Julius Cæsar—Caractacus—Boadicea—period of occupation
- (b) Roman Empire—growth and extent
- (c) Rome itself—describe walls, temples, baths, amphitheatre, triumphal arches.
- (d) Roman banquet—room itself—furniture—food—slaves—dress of people—entertainment—departure of guests

3 ROMANS IN BRITAIN

- (a) Ships—crew—description of sail, oars, steering
- (b) Defence of country—why necessary
 - (i) *Roads*—method of making—names of four chief roads
 - (ii) *Walls*—why made—name famous wall.
- (c) Towns—position—naming of towns

26 BRITAIN AT THE TIME OF JULIUS CÆSAR

4. RESULTS OF ROMAN OCCUPATION

Write down four of the results

EXERCISES

- 1 Give the Latin words for which the letters A.D. stand, and also give the meaning in English
2. What do you understand by the following Mosaic work, amphitheatre, gladiator, triumphal arch, Roman villa, toga, castra
- 3 Give a description of the Roman baths, mentioning one which remains in England to-day
- 4 Excavations are still being made of Roman villas and remains Can you describe where any of these are, and give a brief description of what has been unearthed?
- 5 Give the results of Roman rule in Britain in summary form
6. On a blank map of England show as many towns as possible which were built by the Romans
- 7 Are there any Roman roads near your home? or any Roman remains in your museum?

EXTRACTS

The extracts chosen for this book are all taken from old documents and books which have been preserved. They give a true and vivid picture of ancient times and events, and the important details they contain were recorded by writers who lived during the period in which they happened. Nearly all the early records of history were written in Latin, which was the language of the Romans, and of the scholars in those days. Many of the extracts provided for you are translations from the original documents.

JULIUS CÆSAR DESCRIBES BRITAIN AND THE BRITONS

The climate is more temperate than that of Gaul (France of to-day), the frosts are less severe. The people

of Kent are by far the most civilized of all, their territory is entirely bounded by the sea, and in customs there is little difference between them and the Gauls. The inhabitants of the interior, generally speaking, do not sow corn, but live on milk and flesh, and wear skins of animals for clothing. All the Britons dye themselves with woad, which is a blue colour, and thus render their appearance more fearful in battle.

Gallie War—Cæsar

BOADICEA AND THE ROMANS

Rousing themselves to resistance, all the Britons rose in revolt under the leadership of Boadicea, a woman of the royal family, and eagerly pursuing the soldiers who were scattered among the forts, they expelled the guards and took possession of the colony of Camulodunum, which they regarded as the headquarters of those who were loyal to the Romans.

Life of Agricola—Tacitus.

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

- 1 How did the return of the Romans to their native land affect Britain?
- 2 Tell all you know of Boadicea

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL READING

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN

M & C H B Quennell. *Everyday Life in Roman Britain*

Rudyard Kipling *Puck of Pook's Hill.*

G. A. Henty *Benic the Briton*

A. J. Church *The Count of the Saxon Shore.*

Naomi Mitchison *The Conquered*

SECOND PERIOD

THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH

Before the Romans left Britain, savage tribes from Germany were raiding her shores. To guard the east coast from attack, they appointed a general whom they named the Count of the Saxon Shore—the Saxons being the people who were ravaging and plundering this part of the land. For some time the Britons were able to keep their new foes at bay, but with the final departure of the Romans, they were left without a trained army, and with no leader to unite them against the common foe.

In the north also, the Picts and other tribes were harrying Britain, and making raids farther and farther south. In despair, the Britons appealed to Rome for help against their many foes. They wrote to the Emperor saying: "The barbarians drive us to the sea, and the sea drives us back to the barbarians; between them we have but the choice of two kinds of death, slaughter or drowning."

But no help came to the harassed Britons, for the Romans themselves could not keep out the many foes who were besieging Italy from the north.

Angles, Saxons, and Jutes

These sea pirates were tall, strong men with fair hair and blue eyes. Their homes were round the

mouths of the rivers Elbe and Weser, and in the peninsula of Jutland

They were brave fighters, and they went forth to battle wearing gilded helmets adorned with wings, and clad in strong coats of mail through which no spear could pass

In A.D. 449, this new foe sailed across the North Sea in fleets of swift boats which were rowed by oars, and had a striped sail which was hoisted to hasten their progress when favourable winds blew

In their early expeditions, the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes merely landed to plunder. They robbed the churches, seized the stores of corn, and burned the homes of the terrified inhabitants, many of whom were slain in their valiant attempts to defend themselves and their families

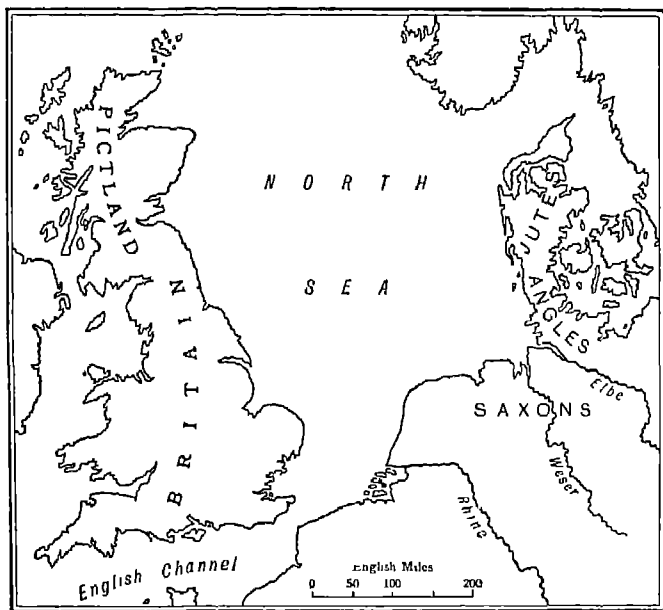
Growing bold with the success of their early ventures, and seeing that Britain was a pleasant and fruitful land, these sea robbers decided to leave for ever their old homes, and settle down in Britain.

The Jutes, under Hengist and Horsa, landed in Kent, where, after a terrible massacre, they made themselves supreme, and proceeded to divide among themselves the conquered land.

Saxon tribes attacked the south coast round the Isle of Wight, and after desperate fighting, established a kingdom for themselves in Sussex and Surrey.

The Angles came in swarms to the east coast, and settled down after their victories in Norfolk, Suffolk, and Middlesex.

It was 150 years before Britain was completely



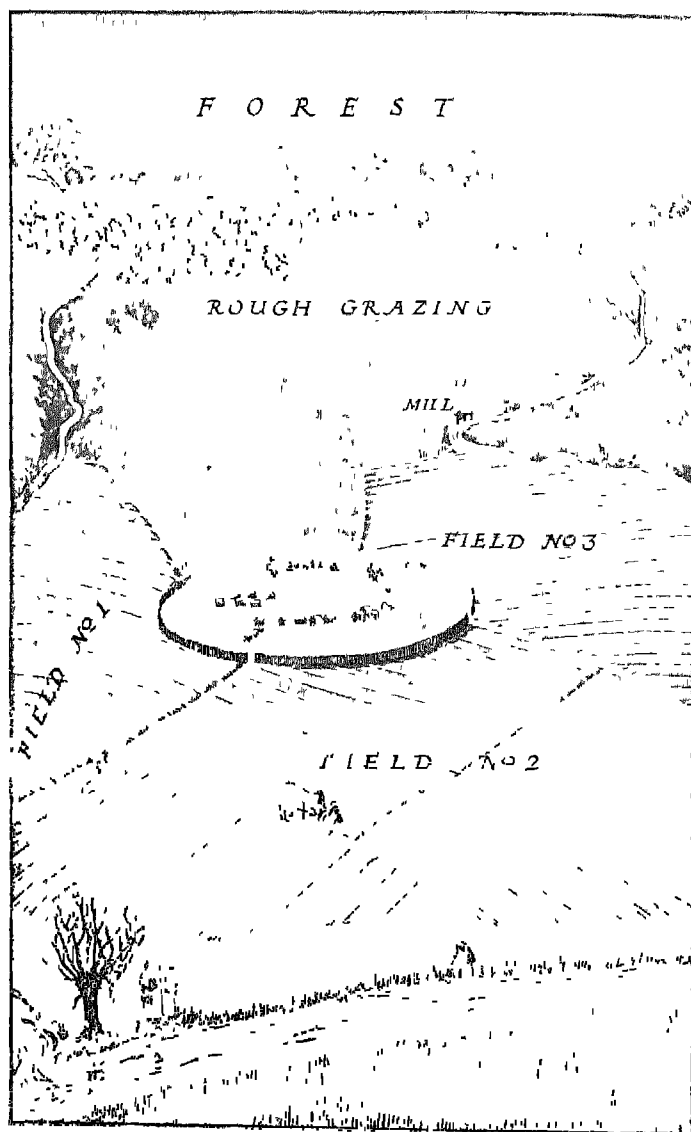
Map showing the lands of the Saxons, Jutes, and Angles

subdued. Britons who were not killed or captured, fled either to Brittany or to the far west, where they took refuge in Cornwall, Wales, Cumberland, and south-west Scotland. These fugitive Britons were called "Welsh"—which means strangers—by the Saxons; and many years later a Saxon king, Offa, was forced to build a great ditch or dyke, along the west border from Chester to Chepstow, to keep them from plundering his lands and slaying his people.

Thus Angles, Saxons, and Jutes made Britain their permanent home, calling it Angeland or England.



A type of the Warrior who invaded Britain in the Fifth Century



A Bird's-eye view of an early English Settlement

An English Village

As these newcomers to Britain were savages, they hated the Roman towns, roads, and beautiful buildings, and soon swept all these away or allowed them to decay. They lived in little villages, usually in the valleys near a stream, building their houses of wood from the trees which they cut down.

Groups of kinsmen collected together in "tuns" or "hams" around the Thames and Trent and other places

They built their homesteads round a "moot" hill or a sacred tree, and here the people came together to settle local affairs—the "moot" being the court to which all wrong-doers were sent to be tried for their crimes. Here, in addition, arrangements were made for the repair of the village rampart, and the ploughing and sowing of the crops

All the land round each village was divided up amongst the freemen, according to their rank

Usually there were three kinds of land, the arable fields, meadow land, and waste land. The arable, or ploughed land, was divided into three large fields, which had no separating hedges such as our modern fields have. Each of these fields was subdivided into strips having low mounds of earth between; and each freeman was allowed to have so many strips in each field, these usually being scattered

The first year, one of these fields grew wheat or rye to make bread; the second year, barley for the ale which was consumed in great quantities, and the third year it was rested or lay fallow to strengthen the soil

	<i>1st Year</i>	<i>2nd Year</i>	<i>3rd Year</i>
Field 1	Wheat	Barley	Fallow
Field 2	Barley	Fallow	Wheat.
Field 3	Fallow	Wheat	Barley

The meadow land was kept for hay during the summer, but at other times of the year could be used by any freeman as pastures for his sheep or cattle.

The waste land was always free for grazing purposes.

The lowest men in the land were called "serfs". Above them were the freemen who were called "ceorls". Next in rank to the "ceorls" were the "thegns", while the "eorls" were the men of noble birth and large possessions.

Eorls—men of noble birth and large possessions.

Thegns—usually warriors.

Ceorls, or Freemen—generally farmers.

Serfs and landless men

All these classes, except the serfs, were allowed to own land according to their rank.

Thus, if a "ceorl" prospered, and gained more land, he could become a "thegn", and even rise to be an "eorl".

It was the duty of the man of highest rank to see that everyone in the village obeyed the laws, and also to send men for the army in time of war.

There were no prisons for wrong-doers, but fines had to be paid according to the extent of the crime. "Wer" money was that paid for killing a man (see extracts).

The homes of the serfs were huts of sticks and mud, thatched with straw

The freeman or ceorl had a larger home of timber with roughly-plastered walls, while the eorls lived in long roomy halls of stone and wood, surrounded by a courtyard, and usually erected on the summit of a hill.

All these English villages were entirely self-supporting. The villagers built their own houses, made their own clothes, grew their corn, baked their bread, reared their cattle, hunted and fished for their meat, and defended their property. In their lifetime they seldom went beyond the border or "maik", which was the forest land that surrounded their village. Thus they remained very isolated, and never became a united people. They were constantly quarrelling among themselves, and gradually the weaker kingdoms became merged into the stronger ones, until by the 8th century there remained only three of importance. These were

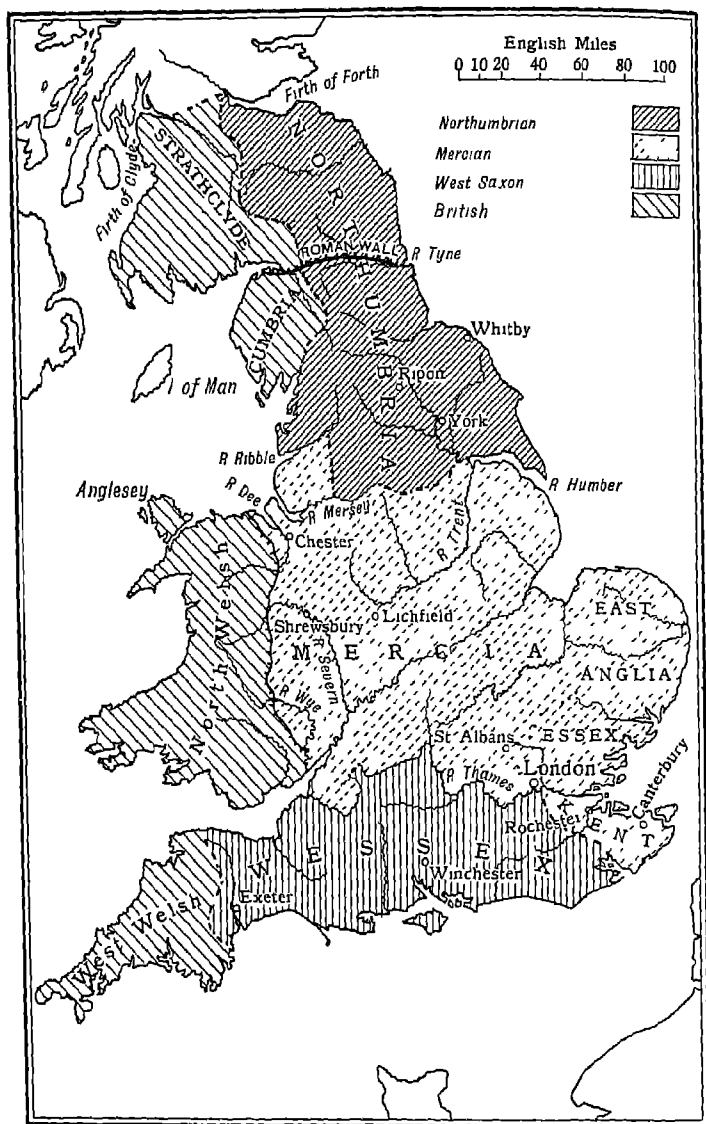
Northumbria, which lay between the Humber and the Forth, with the Pennine Chain for its western boundary

Mercia, or middle England, which stretched from the Thames to the Humber and westward to Wales.

Wessex, which consisted of all the land south of the Thames and east of Devon.

Coming of Christianity

The Britons had become Christians under Roman rule, but the Anglo-Saxon invaders were heathens who worshipped many gods. The chief among



their gods were Woden—the god of war, who has given his name to Wednesday, Thor, the god of Thunder (Thursday), Tyr (Tuesday), and Freya (Friday), the goddess of Spring. The heaven that all these Saxons longed to reach was Valhalla. They believed that there the brave warrior who died fighting in battle would spend his days in fighting, and his nights in feasting. There, too, all the wounded warriors would be healed of their wounds, and the dead made alive.

Thus they hated the churches; and Christianity disappeared, except among the Britons of the far west

For nearly a hundred years after the Angles and Saxons settled in England, they remained heathens.

Then in 597, Pope Gregory sent Saint Augustine to preach the gospel in their heathen land.

Doubtless you have all read the story of the fair-haired, blue-eyed children of England who were sent to Rome to be sold as slaves, and who, on being seen by Gregory standing in the market square waiting for a purchaser, were blessed and told they looked more like angels than Angles. This incident is supposed to have prompted Gregory, when he became Pope, to send the good Augustine with a band of forty monks to convert the Angles.

They landed in Kent, and preached the true faith so well, that the men of Kent soon became Christians, and gave Augustine a church at Canterbury when he became the first archbishop.

When Ethelburga, daughter of the converted Ethelbert, King of Kent, went to Northumbria to



A page from the Lindisfarne Gospel-book, a beautifully decorated copy of the Gospels which the monks of Lindisfarne produced in the seventh century. This is the beginning of the Gospel according to St. John and is written in Latin.

manly Edwin, its king, she took as her bishop, Paulinus, who succeeded in converting Edwin to Christianity two years after. He baptized him in 627 at a well under the crypt of York Minster, and Paulinus became the first bishop of York. Soon Christian Northumbria, under the wise and strong Edwin, became England's leading kingdom.

Monasteries were built by the monks wherever they went, and it was in the monastery at Jarrow in Northumbria that the good monk Bede wrote the first history of England. Between the two Christian kingdoms of Kent and Northumbria, Middle England, or Mercia, still remained heathen. In 633 Edwin of Northumbria was defeated and killed by the King of Mercia at Heathfield in Yorkshire. This made Mercia the foremost state in the latter part of the eighth century. Many of the people of Northumbria forsook Christianity under their heathen conquerors, and remained heathen again until Oswald became their king. Oswald had lived at Iona, where Columba, an Irish abbot, had founded a monastery, and it was there that he appealed for missionaries.

The first monks sent to Northumbria to preach Christianity returned to Iona disheartened by their failures. Then Aidan journeyed south on foot and founded the monastery of Lindisfarne on Holy Island, off the coast of Northumberland, and with his band of followers converted the people of Northumbria once more to Christianity. Thus gradually the gospel of Christ was accepted throughout the greater part of the land.

At the Synod of Whitby in 664, disputes which

had arisen between the followers of the Roman Augustine and the members of the Celtic or Columban Church, were discussed with a view to their settlement. After much debating, it was decided that English Christianity should be that of Rome, rather than that of the early British church

Theodore of Tarsus, who laboured here from 668 to 690, divided the Roman Church in Britain into a number of districts or sees, each under its own bishop. These were all united under the leadership of the Archbishop of Canterbury. This was a very important step towards making the English a united race. The people soon came to acknowledge the Archbishop of Canterbury as the head of the English Church. Then, by degrees, they also became prepared to accept one king to rule over the whole of England through his appointed officers, all of whom looked up to him and obeyed him as their leader.

The king's officers met from time to time to discuss the affairs of the State, and this meeting, or "Mote" of the wise men, came to be known as the "Witanagemot"—witena being the Anglo-Saxon word for wise men. Thus, just as the villagers assembled in the village mote to discuss village affairs, and the eorls met in the Shire mote to discuss the affairs of the Shire, so the Witan met to discuss the general affairs of the whole country. This assembly may be likened to our Parliament of to-day.

TIME CHART OF EVENTS

A D 400-800

Year	Famous Events	Famous People
400 410	Roman Departure.	
449 500	Coming of the English	Hengist and Horsa.
597 600	Coming of St. Augustine	St Augustine, Edwin of Northumbria
664	Synod of Whitby	Bede
700		
	757-796, Offa, King of Mercia	
800		

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

1 BRITAIN AFTER ROMAN DEPARTURE

Attacks by savage tribes—where they came from—
Britons appeal to Rome—result of appeal

2 THE ANGLES, SAXONS, AND JUTES

(a) Description—where they came from and how

(b) Early raids

(c) Later raids

The Jutes —Part of Britain conquered—names of leaders.

Saxons —Place of settlement in Britain

Angles —Place of settlement in Britain.

3. THE BRITONS

Places of settlement—names given to them now—Offa's work

4. ANGLE LAND OR ENGLAND

(a) Early village—where built—description of houses—serfs, freemen, eorls—village moot—where and why held

Customs of people—buildings—farming and method of dividing land—living isolated from others

(b) Kingdoms—name these—state their positions

(c) Christianity—Pope Gregory—Augustine—Church at Canterbury—Monasteries—Jarrow—Bede—Oswald—Aidan—his work—Synod of Whitby

(d) Witanagemot—mote—meaning—Shire mote—beginning of Parliament

EXERCISES

1 Write a short description of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, stating from whence these sea pirates came

2 What were the results of their early raids on Britain?

3 What is the meaning of Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Norfolk, and Suffolk?

4 Describe the religion of the Anglo-Saxons when they first came to Britain

5. State the differences between the Roman and the Anglo-Saxon villages and towns

6 Give the origin of the words used for the days of the week

7 Say all you can about village life in Anglo-Saxon England

8 By whom was Christianity introduced to the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and why?

9 Mention any towns you know with Anglo-Saxon names, explaining the meaning in each case

10. Explain Moot—three-field system—Offa's Dyke—Witanagemot—Synod of Whitby.

11 What was the main influence which brought about the union of the great kingdoms in the ninth century?

12 Write what you can about the following Hengist, Gregory, Columba, Ethelbert, Bede, Lindisfarne, Oswald, Valhalla, Iona, Paulinus, Theodore

MAPS AND PLANS

1 Sketch a map of Britain indicating where the Jutes, Angles, Saxons, and Britons settled

2 Draw a plan of a Saxon village

3 Draw a map showing the position of the following Canterbury, York, Iona, Offa's Dyke, Wales, Cumberland, Wessex, Kent, Mercia, and Northumbria

EXTRACTS

These extracts are from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, a book which records the history of England from the birth of Christ to A D 1154 It was written in Anglo-Saxon, and was begun by Alfred the Great just before A D 900 He obtained most of the information for the early part from Bede's History The events were written down year by year as they happened, and the Chronicle was continued after Alfred's death by the monks Copies were made from Alfred's original Chronicle which was preserved at Winchester, the chief town in England at the time You can see one of the copies of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle at the British Museum, London Ethelbert and Ine were Anglo-Saxon Kings

LAW AND ORDER IN ANGLO-SAXON DAYS

1 "If anyone slay a freeman, 50 shillings to the king as compensation to the ruler"—*From the laws of Ethelbert*

2 "If anyone sell his own countryman, bond or free,

though he be guilty, over sea, let him pay for him with his 'wer' "—*From laws of Ine*

3 " If anyone go from his lord without leave, or strae himself away into another shire, and he be discovered, let him go where he was before and pay to his lord IX shillings." —*From laws of Ine.*

4 " Let him who takes a thief and he then lets him go or conceals the theft, pay for the thief, with his 'wer' "—*From laws of Ine*

5 " If a man owning land neglect the 'fyrd' (military service) let him pay CXX shillings and forfeit his land." —*From laws of Ine.*

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

1. What is meant by "wer" money
- 2 What was the form of punishment generally used in Anglo-Saxon times?
- 3 Why should the king have compensation when a free-man was slain?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL READING

THE ANGLO-SAXONS

- The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (Everyman's Library)
 M & C. H B Quennell *Everyday Life in Anglo-Saxon, Viking and Norman Times*
 Rudyard Kipling *Rewards and Fairies*
 W Deeping *Uther and Igraine*
 Bede *History of the Church in England.*

THIRD PERIOD

ALFRED'S STRUGGLE AGAINST THE DANES

Three kingdoms stand out in the history of the Saxon period; first Northumbria, which was the most powerful kingdom in the seventh century, then Mercia, which conquered Northumbria in the eighth century; and lastly Wessex, which, under Egbert, became the chief power in England at the beginning of the ninth century.

In 827 Egbert was acknowledged overlord of the whole of England, and it seemed that the people might now settle peaceably under one ruler. This was not to be, for a fiercer foe than had attacked the shores of Britain 300 years before, came sailing over the North Sea to the east coast of England.

These Northmen, or Danes, crept up the river mouths in long black ships. Round the sides of these hung the shining shields of the warriors who manned them, while a dragon's head and tail, painted gold, adorned the prow and the stern. Thirty or more oarsmen rowed these boats, which hoisted large square sails striped in many colours.

In addition to the oarsmen were 30 or 40 warriors. These men, after mooring their vessel in a sheltered spot, raced inland uttering hoarse savage cries. They



Northmen or Danes

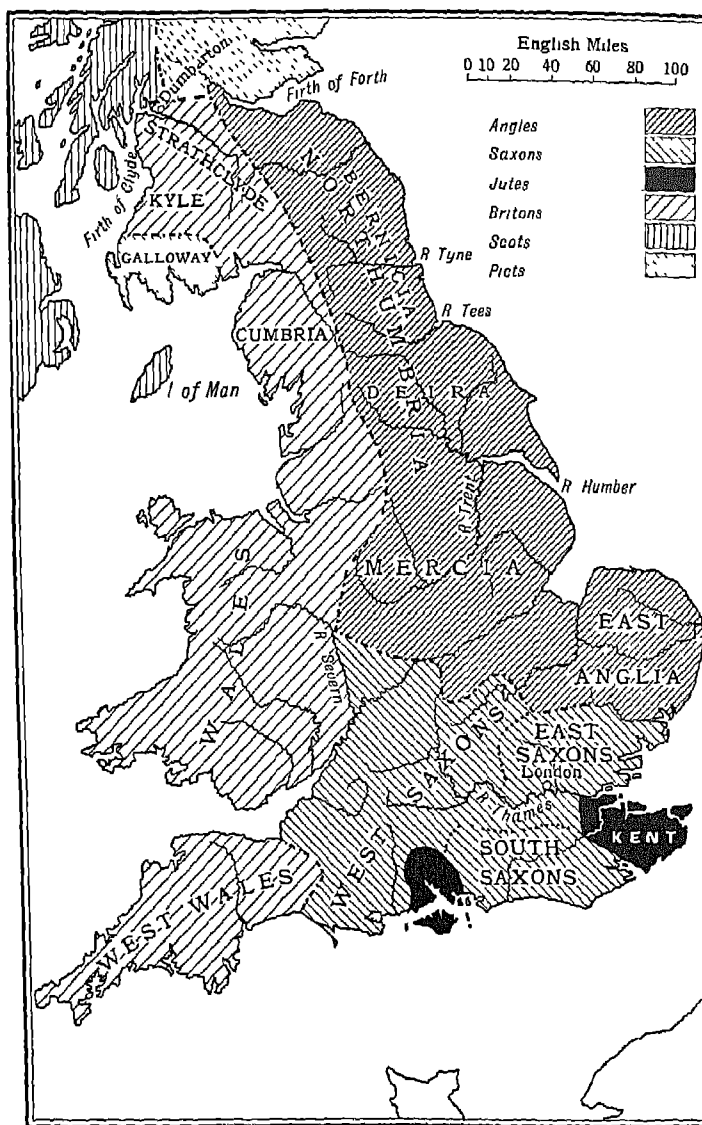
fired the homesteads, slaughtered the inhabitants, and plundered, as the Saxon invaders had done before them. The monasteries near the east coast fell an easy prey to these raiders, who stole their riches, slew the monks, and finally set fire to their churches. Then these tall, fair-haired heathen sea-rovers returned in their dragon ships to their own homes in Denmark, Norway, and the lands round the Baltic. Here the barren soil and bleak weather drove them to seek more fruitful lands abroad. These Danish sea-pirates sailed to France, Iceland, Greenland, the Orkney and Shetland Isles, and even—it is said—to North America as well as to England. Vikings, or creek men, they were called, because it was their custom to steal up the creeks or river mouths of the countries they invaded.

Very soon the summer was dreaded by the English, for it was when the days were long, and the seas calm, that these Northmen made their raids. And such success met their expeditions, that they began to settle permanently in the districts round the east coast of England.

Place names ending in "by" (the Danish name for "farm"—Whitby, Grimsby, and Derby) and "wick" (the Danish word for "creek"—Berwick, Norwich, and Ipswich) still mark the sites of their towns.

Alfred the Great

Until the accession of Alfred in 871, no great opposition met the Danes. Although only 22 years old, Alfred was wise beyond his years.



Map of England as divided by the Treaty of Wedmore

He had been taught by a scholarly mother, and, in addition to being a brave soldier, was a great statesman and ruler.

He fought numerous battles before he was able to subdue the Danes

At one time he was driven to take refuge in Athelney, a part of Somersetshire. Here, disguised as a peasant, he was busily engaged for three months collecting the army which finally overthrew the Danes at Ethandun in Wiltshire in 878.

After this great defeat, Guthrum, the Danish leader, met Alfred at Wedmore, and promised not to make any further attacks on Wessex, to accept the eastern part of England as his territory, and to become a Christian. The land thus allotted to the Danes by Alfred became known as the Danelaw, or the land where the laws of the Danes prevailed. Watling Street, which had been built by the Romans 700 years before, was the boundary, north of the Thames, between the English and Danish kingdoms.

What Alfred did for England

At last Alfred found time to think about improving the condition of his people. Greatly troubled at the ignorance of all classes, including the priests, he collected a group of scholars from home and abroad, and sent them to teach the people in schools which he built all over Wessex.

Even in his own palace, he invited the sons of the eorls to meet for the "purpose of knowledge". He translated Bede's *History of England* from Latin into English, and compiled the Anglo-Saxon Chron-

icle which was the national history of England up to his time. This chronicle is one of our most trustworthy records of Saxon times, and was continued by the monks until 1102. Some extracts from it are given on pp. 56 and 57.

Alfred also decided that in order to keep the peace he had so dearly won, he must strengthen the defences of his beloved Wessex. Thus he sent across the seas for skilled men to build a fleet of ships. These men made longer and swifter vessels for Alfred than the dragon ships of the Vikings. Alfred now had a navy to guard his shores, and for this great work has been called "The Father of the English Navy". He then turned his attention to the army or "Fyrd", as it was called.

He trained the "thegns" or warriors as horsemen, in order that they could move about more quickly, also he compelled them to bring trained bands of warriors to serve him in time of war. Instead of calling up all the ceorls at the same time, as had been the custom in the past, Alfred divided them into two groups; thus he provided that half should be at home to farm the land and attend to the crops, while the other half served in battle. Alfred fortified villages and towns over all his kingdom, defending these by huge ramparts and trenches. The old name for a fortified town was "burgh" or "borough" (Peterborough, Richborough, Edinburgh), and in these burghs the people living near took refuge in time of war.

Alfred was anxious that justice should be done to all, and that the laws should be known throughout

the land. So he summoned the bishops, eorls, and chief thegns to meet him in council and together they collected and wrote down the best of the old Saxon laws, which the king strictly enforced. Thus England became an orderly, well-defended, and united country under Alfred's wise rule.

In 901, after suffering for years from a painful malady, Alfred the Great died.

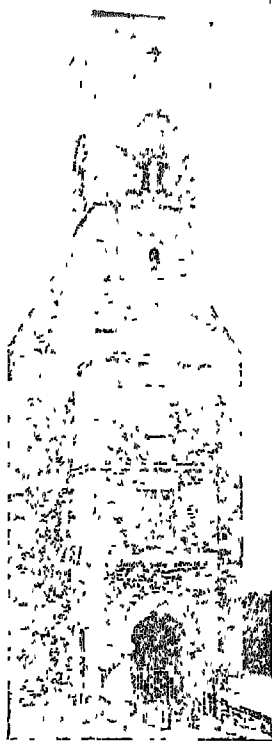
From Alfred to the Norman Conquest

Many of Alfred's descendants were able men who continued his wise government. His son, Edward the Elder, conquered the Danelaw, uniting England once more under one king.

Then Athelstan, the favourite grandson of Alfred, fought a great battle against the combined armies of the Danes, Scots, and Welsh, and defeated them at Brunanburh (note burh).

Edgar the Peaceful was another worthy successor of Alfred. He ruled with the wise help of Dunstan, who became Archbishop of Canterbury. This great churchman kept two aims always before him:

1. To improve and strengthen the Church.
2. To make the land united and prosperous.



The Tower of a Saxon Church
It shows the style of architecture known as Saxon

He began to carry out his first aim, by building new churches, monasteries, and schools. Also he reformed the clergy, many of whom had become fat and lazy. To fulfil his second aim, he insisted that everyone should obey all the laws of Alfred, giving justice to rich and poor alike.

Ethelred the Unready, who followed Edgar, was a weak and foolish man. When the Danes returned, Ethelred and his mismanaged armies were no match for them, so he bribed them with gold to return to their homes. To pay the increasing demands of the Danes, who came again and again for more gold, a tax, called "Danegeld" or "Dane money", had to be levied on the English. As he was getting poorer and poorer, and his enemies were returning regularly for more gold, Ethelred treacherously planned to slaughter all the Danes who remained in England. On St. Brice's Day, 13th November, 1002, this great massacre took place. Amongst the murdered was Gunhilda, the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark. Horrified and enraged at the news of this appalling slaughter, Sweyn came with an army to avenge the death of his countrymen. Cowardly Ethelred fled in terror to Normandy, where he died shortly afterwards.

Sweyn did not live to rule England long, and when he died, his son Canute became king. He had to fight against Edmund Ironside, the brave son of Ethelred, who tried valiantly to regain his father's kingdom. Canute was glad to make peace, and shared England with him.

Edmund's death soon after, left Canute as sole

uler again; and for the remainder of his reign, he strove hard to restore peace throughout England.

Although Canute was King of Denmark and Norway as well as of England, he loved the new land best, and spent most of his time there. He made friends with the great Saxon nobles who governed their lands by Alfred's laws; he became a Christian, and built many new monasteries and churches; he encouraged foreigners to come over to trade with the English merchants. Thus England flourished greatly during his reign.

When he died, in 1035, he was succeeded, first by his son Harold, a weak and deceitful man, and later by his second son Hardicanute. The lawlessness of both these kings sickened the English of Danish rule, so they chose Edward, younger son of Ethelred, to be their next king, and the throne passed once again to an Englishman.



The two sides of a coin of the time of Canute

54 ALFRED'S STRUGGLE AGAINST THE DANES

TIME CHART OF EVENTS

800-1016

Year	Famous Events	Famous People
800	Attacks of the Danes	Alfred the Great.
871	Alfred the Great	
878	Treaty of Wedmore.	
900		
959	Edgar the Peaceful	Dunstan
1000		
1016	Canute	

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

THE DANES

How the Danes came—description of ships—what they did on landing—where they came from and other places they visited—reason for and times of their comings—results of their expeditions—Viking—why this name—places where settled

ALFRED

Age—very intelligent—why—refuge in Athelney—disguised—Ethan-dun—Guthrum and Treaty of Wedmore—meaning of Danelaw.

ALFRED'S WORK

- (a) *Education* to educate all classes—teachers—schools—Bede's *History of England*—laws—Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.
- (b) *Defence*
 - (i) Sea built ships—first navy
 - (ii) Land Army—trained—thegns as horsemen—reason—method of training—description of works.
- (c) *Government* wise laws—mention meeting of bishops, &c —reason—results

ALFRED TO NORMAN CONQUEST.

Edward the Elder—Athelstan—Brunanburh—Edgar the Peaceful—Dunstan—his aims—Ethelred the Unready—Danegeld—results of Ethelred's rule—Sweyn—Canute—mention some of his works

EXERCISES

- 1 Describe a Danish raid on England.
- 2 What were the results of the Danish expeditions?
- 3 Name the good points of Alfred's character
- 4 What do you know of the following Viking, Athelney, Ethandun, Guthrum, Treaty of Wedmore, Danelaw, Anglo-Saxon Chronicle?
- 5 Say how Alfred improved the education of his people.
- 6 Why was he called "The Great"?
- 7 State one fact about each of the following Athelstan, Edgar the Peaceful, Dunstan, Danegeld, Ethelred the Unready, Canute
- 8 What stories do you know about Alfred apart from those you have read in this book?

56 ALFRED'S STRUGGLE AGAINST THE DANES

- 9 Which of Alfred's successors did the best work for England, and why?
- 10 How did Alfred improve the "fyrd"?
- 11 What use did the English people make of the "burhs"?

MAPS AND CHARTS

- 1 On a blank map mark the countries from which the Danes came
- 2 Draw a rough sketch-map to show Alfred's and Guthrum's kingdoms at the Treaty of Wedmore

REVISION EXERCISES

- 1 Place the following in chronological order Alfred, Caractacus, Julius Cæsar, Augustine, Bede, Offa, Hadrian, birth of Christ
- 2 Name in chronological order five tribes who attacked Britain.
- 3 By whom were the following places founded: Wellington, Oldham, Exeter, Alcester, Whitby, Norwich?

EXTRACTS

ALFRED AS LAWGIVER

1 "I, then, Alfred, king, gathered these laws together and commanded many of those to be written which our forefathers held, those which to me seemed good, and many of those which seemed to me not good I rejected them, by the counsel of my 'witam' and ordained otherwise. For I dared not write much of my own, for it was unknown to me how that would please those that should come after us."—*From Preamble to the Laws of Alfred—Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (*preamble* means an introductory statement).

ALFRED AND GUTHRUM MAKE PEACE

2 "This is the peace that King Alfred and King Guthrum and the 'witam' of all the English nation, and all the people that are in East Anglia, have all ordained and with oaths confirmed, for themselves and for their descendants, as well for born as for unborn who seek of God's mercy or of ours

(1) "Concerning our land boundaries Up on the Thames and then up on the Lea, and along the Lea unto its source, then straight to Bedford, then up on the Ouse unto Watling Street"—*From Alfred's and Guthrum's Peace*
—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT NO. 1.

- 1 To what event does this extract refer?
- 2 Why did Alfred collect these laws?

EXTRACT NO. 2

- 1 Where and under what condition was this peace made between Alfred and Guthrum?
- 2 Who was Guthrum? Did he fulfil the promises he made to Alfred on this occasion?
- 3 Why was England divided as described in this extract?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL
READING

THE DANES

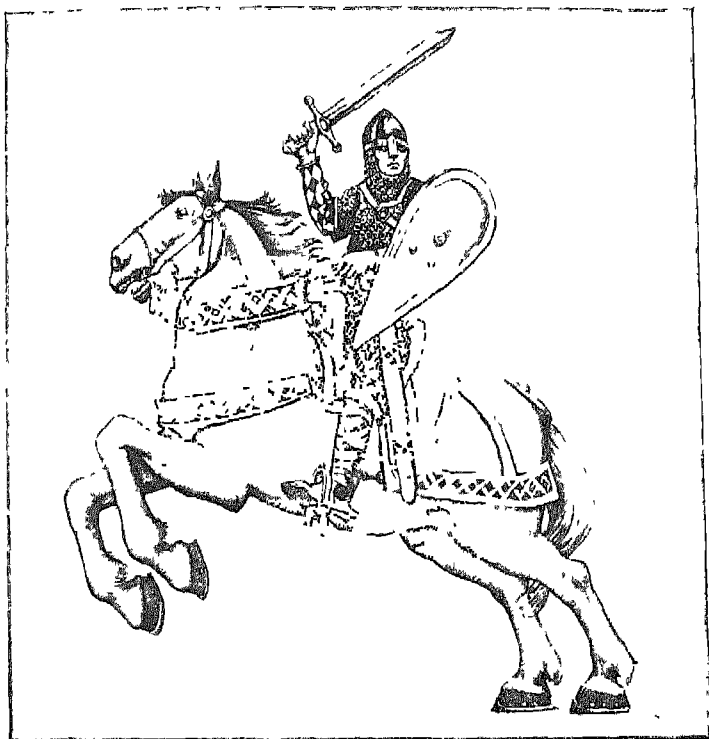
- M & C H B Quennell *Everyday Life in Anglo-Saxon, Viking, and Norman Times*
H Rider Haggard *Eric Brighteyes*
R M Ballantyne *Erling the Bold*
G. A. Henty *The Dragon and the Raven, Wulf the Saxon*.
Sir G W Dasent *Tales from the Norse*
Charlotte Yonge *A Book of Golden Deeds*.

FOURTH PERIOD

THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND FEUDALISM

The new king, Edward, was a pious man, very fond of religious services, and he spent nearly all his time saying prayers or attending to church affairs. Much of his wealth was devoted to the building of new churches, the most famous of which was Westminster Abbey, which was erected within reach of his own palace. This devotion to religion caused him to be known as Edward the Confessor. Having spent so much of his early life in Normandy, Edward's ways were like those of the Normans, and all his sympathies were with them. Thus, when he came to England he brought with him many of his foreign friends, and this made some of the English noblemen jealous. To resist Edward these Englishmen formed themselves into a party, under the leadership of Godwin, Earl of Wessex. On the death of Godwin, his son Harold became the leader of this party.

When Edward the Confessor died in A.D. 1066, there was some doubt as to who should succeed him; for the English party wanted Harold to be king, while William, Duke of Normandy, said that Edward had promised him the throne. When Harold was



A mounted Norman Knight Notice what a heavy horse he rides

elected king by the Witan, William of Normandy decided to attack England, and enforce his own claim to the throne.

Then Harold and William prepared for battle. Unfortunately for Harold, he had quarrelled with his brother Tostig, and so William had a valuable ally. While the English army was lined up along the south coast of England, waiting for the attack of the Normans, Tostig, and Harold Hardrada, a Norwegian

leader, attacked York in the north of England. The English army hastened northwards, and met them at Stamford Bridge, where Tostig was defeated and killed.

Two days later, before Harold could return to the south, William landed at Pevensey Bay. The English army returned only just in time to secure a good position on Senlac Hill, in readiness for the battle which followed.

The Battle of Hastings

As William advanced from the sea, he saw the English gathered together behind a stockade. The bodyguard of Harold, fully equipped and with large battle-axes, was grouped round the king's standard. The Norman foot soldiers began the attack, and were driven off by the Saxons. Now the Norman cavalry attacked, only to be driven back again and again. Then, as a rumour had spread that he was killed, William tore off his helmet to show his men that he was still alive. Immediately after this, William, pretending to flee, rode with his men down the hill; and, as the English followed them, the Normans suddenly turned and were able to cut them to pieces. The battle was not yet over, for Harold and his bodyguard were still fighting valiantly. It was not until William ordered his archers to shoot upwards, and one of the shafts pierced Harold's eye, that the battle ended in a Norman victory.

Rebellions against William

It was on Christmas Day, A.D. 1066, that William

was crowned king in Westminster Abbey. Even then he could not be called king in anything but name, as he had to quell three risings against him before he was king in reality. The first one was that of Harold's mother at Exeter. William besieged the city for eighteen days; and it was not until he began to undermine the walls that the citizens surrendered. The second rebellion was in the north of England, where the English, helped by the Danes and Scots, drove William's garrison out of York. When William arrived, the Danes and the Scots had gone back to their own countries; but William punished the English rebels by burning the land from the Ouse to the Tyne, so that nothing was grown there for nine years.

The third rising was that of Hereward the Wake at Ely, an account of which is given in an extract at the end of this chapter. It is said that after Hereward's flight from Ely, William offered him a place in his army, which was accepted by Hereward. With the defeat of this third rising, the Norman conquest may be said to have been completed.

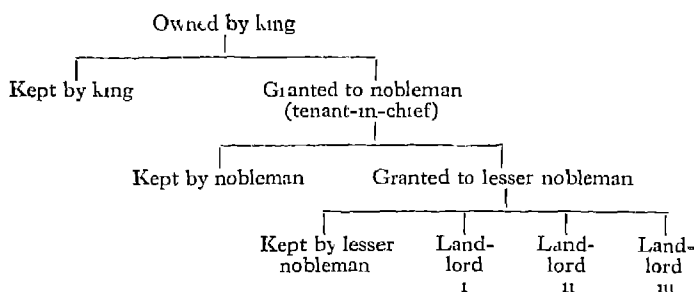
The Feudal System

William the Conqueror, as history generally calls him, now declared that all the land in the country belonged to him by right of conquest; but as he could not possibly look after it all himself, he was willing to let others hold some of it, so long as they did homage to him for it. On this condition, he gave some to the Church and to his Norman followers who had helped him to win the country,

and some he returned to those Anglo-Saxons who had not fought against him

In A.D. 1086 he called all the chief landowners together on Salisbury Plain. There they did homage to him, by kneeling before him and putting their folded hands on his, saying. " I swear to be faithful and attached to you, as a man should be to his lord "

The noblemen were permitted to sub-let their lands, if they wished, but if they did so, they required their vassals to do homage to them, as they had done to the king. If the lesser nobles wished, in their turn, to let out part of their land, they were allowed to do so. Thus, one piece of land might be divided up as follows:



In Normandy the nobles held huge estates, each of them in one district; this made them very powerful, and their frequent rebellions were a source of great trouble to William. He had not this difficulty to face in England, since no one of the Norman barons in that country held a very large estate in one district, although most of them had a number of smaller estates in several districts. One reason for

this was that England was conquered gradually, district by district, and each part was divided up as it was conquered.

This dividing up of the great barons' territories made it almost impossible for them to raise an army against William without his officers being aware of it.

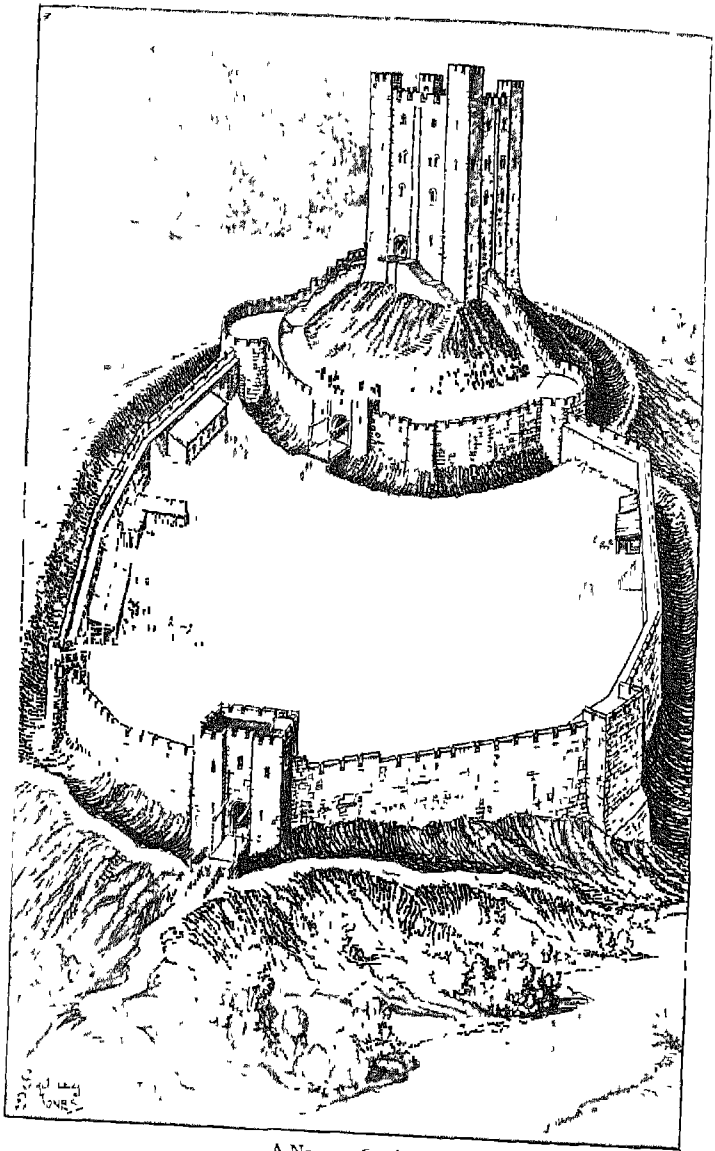
The only lords who held their estates in one district were those who lived on the borders of Wales and Scotland, where the attacks of the Welsh and the Scots made it necessary to have large armies for defence.

One precaution which William took against rebellions, was to compel all the sub-tenants of the great lords to swear an oath of allegiance to the crown, as well as to their own landlords.

Besides doing homage, other duties were expected of the tenants, the most important being to provide their lord with soldiers in time of war. Also, a payment had to be made to the overlord by a tenant when the estate passed to him on the death of the former owner.

William appointed a sheriff in each county to collect what was due to the king, and at Easter and Michaelmas, the sheriff had to go to Winchester to pay in to the Treasury what he had collected. At first, these dues were paid in goods, such as corn, sheep, and cattle, but later on, when it was customary to pay in money, "Tally sticks" were kept. These were pieces of wood, notched to show the amount paid, and they were cut in half, one piece being kept by the Treasury and the other by the sheriff.

In order that he should know exactly what he



A Norman Castle

owned in England, William the First caused the Domesday Book to be drawn up. In this book was recorded (*a*) what land there was, (*b*) who owned it, (*c*) its worth (see extract). To find out these particulars, men were sent all over England. Domesday Book may still be seen in the Record Office in London. This method of holding land from the king, and doing homage to him for it, was known as Feudalism, or the Feudal System.

How William gave Peace to England

William the Conqueror's greatest desire was to establish a lasting peace in England. He built strong castles round the coast for defence against any foreign invader, and inland to maintain order amongst the barons. Further, he did not allow the great Normans to build castles for themselves without his permission. All these Norman castles were built on the same plan. They were generally erected on the top of a hill, and were completely surrounded by a moat, over which a drawbridge gave admission to the castle. Inside the strong stone walls was a large courtyard, round which were the stables, store-houses, workshops, and servants' quarters.

Passing through an inner gate, and probably over a second moat by means of another drawbridge, the main part of the castle was reached. Here were the lord's living-rooms, the ladies' bowers, and the keep, which was a strong square tower with walls so thick that the archers could walk along them.

There were narrow slits in the walls, through which the archers could shoot when the castle was

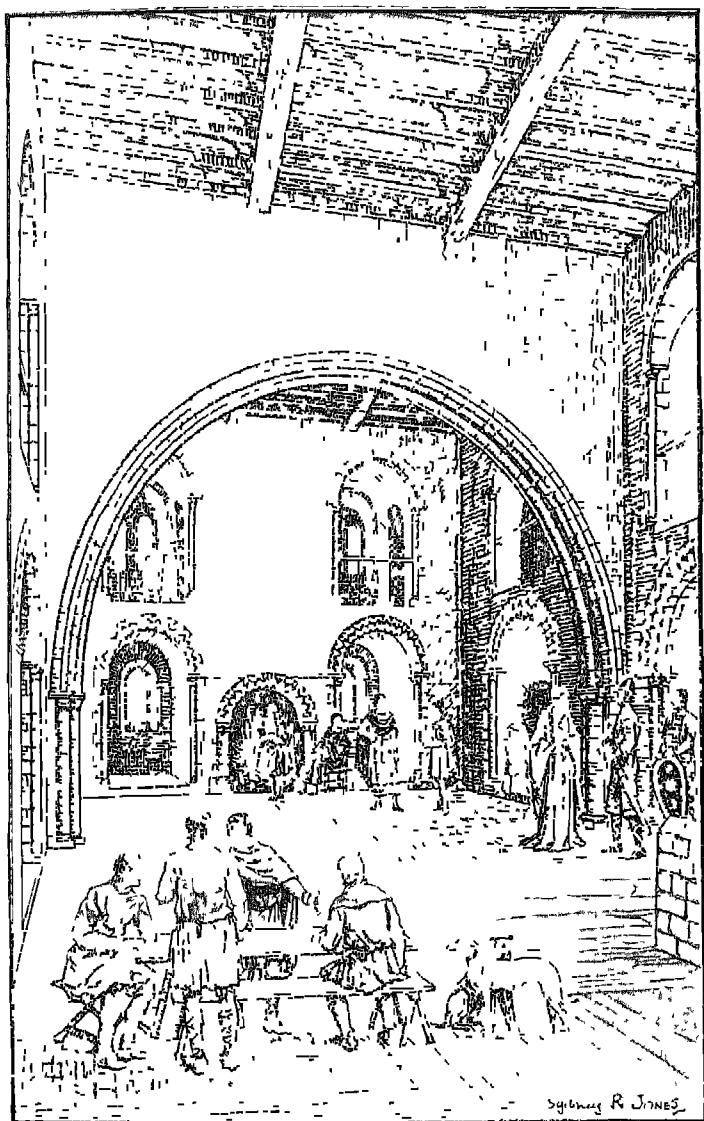
attacked. Ludlow Castle and Arundel Castle still have Norman keeps in a good state of preservation.

As well as building and fortifying castles to help him to preserve peace, William the Conqueror increased the power of the shire-reeves, or sheriffs. In Saxon times, these men had collected the king's rents and taxes, and presided over the shire moots, or local courts of justice. William made them responsible for keeping strict order in their shires or counties. In this way they served as a check on the warlike spirit of the Norman barons, and, at the same time, protected the peasant classes by seeing that justice was given to them. By his friendliness to the Church, William had another valuable ally in his desire for peace.

He summoned Lanfranc from Normandy, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury. Gradually the new Norman prelate filled the bishoprics and abbeys with Normans, who built beautiful churches of stone with very thick walls like those of the Norman castle, and with rounded arches over windows and doors.

William gave the Church courts of its own, where the bishops presided and tried offending clergy. This separation of the church courts from the civil courts led to much trouble between later kings and the clergy.

Lanfranc chose good men to fill vacancies in the Church, and they strove hard to maintain strict discipline in the land. In this way the Church helped William greatly to make England peaceful and orderly.



Scene in the Great Hall of a Norman Castle

Another method by which William took steps to prevent risings against the crown was the introduction of curfew. This was a bell which was rung at sunset, in every part of the kingdom. It warned Normans and English alike that all fires and lights must be covered; the word curfew being derived from the French "couvre feu", which means, cover fire. This hindered plotters from discussing their plans at night, compelling them to retire early to bed.

William was a wise ruler and a godly king, but his stern character kept him aloof from his people, and made him greatly feared by all.

His death in France caused no regrets; but he had given England peace and prosperity, and for this work is regarded as one of our greatest kings.



Science and Commerce as pictured by an artist of the middle ages

THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND FEUDALISM 69

TIME CHART OF EVENTS IN NORMAN PERIOD

A D 1050—A D 1150

Year A D	Famous Events	Famous People
1050		
1066	Battle of Stamford Bridge Battle of Hastings	Harold Tostig William the Conqueror
1086	Oath on Salisbury Plain Domesday Book	
1087	William II	
1100	Henry I	Anselm.
1135	Stephen.	Matilda.
1150		

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

NORMAN CONQUEST

A. *Edward the Confessor*

Religion—churches—Westminster Abbey—sympathies with Normans.

B. *Battle of Stamford Bridge.*

Those who fought—result.

C. *Battle of Hastings*

1. Attack of Norman foot soldiers.
- 2 Attack of Norman cavalry
- 3 Attack of Norman archers
- 4 Result of battle

D. *William the First*

- 1 Coronation—date—where crowned
- 2 Rebellions (a) Harold's mother (b) Risings in the north (c) Hereward.

E. *Feudal System*

- 1 How land was held.
- 2 Oath of allegiance on Salisbury Plain.
- 3 Sub-division of land
- 4 Duties of vassals
- 5 Collection of king's dues—tally sticks.
- 6 Domesday book

F. *William's Peace Plans*

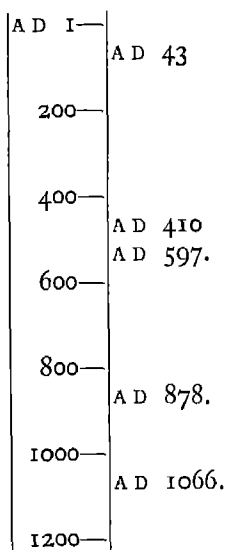
- 1 Built castles—description of castles
- 2 Increased sheriff's power—their duties
- 3 Friendliness to the Church—Lanfranc—stone churches—courts of their own
- 4 Curfew bell—reasons for it.

EXERCISES

- 1 What great fault had Edward the Confessor as a king?
- 2 What rights had Harold and William, Duke of Normandy, to the throne of England?
- 3 Why was Harold's army in the north when William landed in England?
- 4 How did Harold arrange his army to meet the Normans, and what advantage did his position give him?
- 5 Name the weapons used by the English and Normans respectively at the Battle of Hastings
- 6 What trick did William of Normandy use to turn the tide of battle in his favour?
7. What difficulties had William the First to face after his coronation?
- 8 What do you understand by Feudalism?
- 9 How did William divide the land he had conquered?
- 10 Mention one important historical event connected with each of the following Winchester, Salisbury Plain, Pevensey Bay, Westminster Abbey, York, Ely
- 11 Say what you can about the following Tally sticks, sheriff, Domesday Book, record office, vassals, Lanfranc, and curfew
- 12 Give a short account of how William kept peace in England

PLANS, MAPS, AND CHARTS

- 1 Insert the following places in a blank map of England and France Hastings, Normandy, York, Ely, Exeter
- 2 Draw a plan of a Norman castle
- 3 Name the events connected with the dates given in the following time line.



EXTRACTS

WILLIAM I AND HEReward

1 "When the Earls Edwin and Morcar learnt that the king was intending to make them prisoners, they fled secretly from the court, and began to raise a rebellion. Finding that this met with no success, Edwin decided to approach Malcolm, King of Scotland, but on the way there, he fell a victim to the plots of his followers, and was killed. Morcar, however, and Ethelwine, Bishop of Durham, and Siward, surnamed Barn, and Hereward, a great warrior, sailed with many others to the Isle of Ely, intending to stay there for the winter. On hearing this, the king brought his troops to the eastern side of the island, and blocked all the approaches there, whilst on the west side he made a bridge two miles long. The defenders, finding themselves thus shut in, made no attempt at resistance, and all surrendered, except the valiant Hereward, who, with a few followers, made his way

through the stakes The king imprisoned Ethelwine at Abingdon, where he died the same winter The Earl and the rest were sent to different parts of England, some being imprisoned, and some allowed to go free after being maimed or blinded"—*From the Chronicle of Florence of Worcester*

WILLIAM I AND HIS VASSALS AT SALISBURY

2 "After that he went about so that he came at Lammas to Salisbury, and there came to him his witan, and all the land-owning men of any account, that there were over all England, whose soever men they were, and all bowed down to him and became his men, and swore oaths of fealty to him, that they would be faithful to him against all other men"—*From the Peterborough Chronicle, A.D. 1086* (the version of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* which was continued up to 1154)

PARTICULARS OF INFORMATION COLLECTED FOR DOMESDAY BOOK

3 "Here is written down the inquest of lands, in what manner the king's barons have made inquisition, namely, by oath of the sheriff of the shire, and of all the barons and of their Frenchmen, and of the whole hundred, of the priest, the reeve and six villeins of each vill Next the name of the manor, who held it in the time of King Edward, who holds it now, the number of hides, the number of plows on the demesne, the number of those of the men, the number of villeins, the number of cotters, the number of serfs, the number of freemen, the number of sokemen, the amount of forest, the amount of meadow, the number of pastures, the number of mills, the number of fishponds, how much it has been increased or diminished, how much it was worth then, and how much now, how much each freeman and sokeman held and holds there All this three times over, namely, in the time of King Edward, and when King William gave it, and as it now is, and if more can be had than is had"

—*Domesday Book, A.D. 1086.*

74 THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND FEUDALISM

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1.

Give a ten-line description, from memory, of the events described in this extract.

EXTRACT 2

1 To whom does "he" refer? What word is generally used to describe the oath of loyalty to the king?

2. What was the "Witan"?

EXTRACT 3

1 What do you understand by the term "inquest of lands"? From whom did the king's barons get the information to set down in the Domesday Book?

2 To whom does the Domesday Book belong? Where may we now see it?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL READING

THE NORMANS

John Buchan *The Path of the King*

Charles Kingsley *Hereward the Wake*

H. Strang *In the New Forest*

F. M. Stenton *William the Conqueror*.

FIFTH PERIOD

LATER NORMAN KINGS

When William I died in 1087, by the law of succession his eldest son Robert should have followed him on the English throne. William the Conqueror, however, knew that England needed a firm hand to keep the unruly Norman barons in check, and so by his will, he gave the English throne to his second son, William, while he left Normandy to Robert.

The new king was crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc, who strongly supported his claim to the throne. William Rufus, as he is generally called from his red hair and ruddy countenance, was a man of great muscular strength and strong will, but he was extravagant, cruel, and wicked.

The Norman barons soon realized that he would not allow them to do as they liked, and in 1088, one year after William II came to the throne, they rose in rebellion, under the leadership of Bishop Odo of Bayeux. They claimed the throne for Duke Robert, thinking his easy-going ways would suit them better than William's tyranny. William at once appealed to the English for support, and mustered the "fyrd" in such numbers that the rebels were completely beaten. The Normans who had taken part in this rising were severely dealt with by William, many of them losing their estates, while others were heavily fined.

How William extorted Money

To provide money for his personal extravagances, William II, with the help of a Norman favourite, Ranulf Flambard, extorted money from everyone in the land. The barons were forced to pay unjust dues, and were taxed more heavily than they had been even by William I. The English also were taxed to the utmost farthing.

At the death of Lanfranc, William refused to appoint a successor to him, and also kept unfilled many other bishoprics. As the revenues from all vacant sees went to the royal treasury, this proved so great a source of wealth to William, that, at the close of his reign, one archbishopric, four bishoprics, and eleven abbeys were without pastors. It was only when he lay severely ill that, thinking to save his soul, he sent for Anselm, the Abbot of Bec, to fill the vacant Archbishopric of Canterbury. This great churchman proved later to be the only one in the kingdom who refused to take no notice of the king's misdoings. He was finally driven to take shelter in France, so fierce was the king's anger at Anselm's refusal to acknowledge him as his overlord.

Invasion of Wales

William succeeded in adding considerably to his lands by settling Normans in Cumberland, the people of which were still mainly British. He also waged war on the Welsh, gaining much territory in east and south Wales. Normandy, too, came under his rule when his brother Robert pledged his possessions there to him, in return for a loan which

Robert borrowed from William, to enable him to equip an army for a crusade. These crusades, or wars of the cross, were expeditions against the Turks, from whom the Crusaders were trying to rescue the tomb of Christ.

William Rufus was killed by an arrow sped from an unseen hand, while hunting in the New Forest in Hampshire. His body was found by some charcoal burners, who carried it to Winchester for burial. Rufus's death was probably accidental. But many people thought it was a judgment of God. They called to mind the cruelty shown to the inhabitants when William the Conqueror cleared the district of houses to make the New Forest into a deer forest, where he and his nobles could indulge in the sport of hunting.

Henry I

Robert, Duke of Normandy, had not returned from Palestine when William II was killed, and in his absence the throne was again usurped, this time by his younger brother, Henry

To win the support of the English, lest on Robert's return the barons should again attempt to put him on the throne, Henry I gave them a written charter, known as the Charter of Liberties. In this, he promised to rule according to the laws of Edward the Confessor and of his father, William I, and to remedy many of the wrongs suffered by the people during the reign of his brother, William Rufus. He imprisoned Ranulf Flambard, who had used his power to make William II rich and his subjects

pool, recalled Archbishop Anselm from exile in France, and chose for his wife Matilda, daughter of Queen Margaret of Scotland, who was a direct descendant of the old English royal house.

This marriage pleased the English greatly, but it was looked on with scorn by the Norman barons, and civil war broke out as soon as Robert returned to Normandy. It was Robert of Bellême, one of the haughtiest and most selfish of the Normans, who led this rebellion. Henry, however, was backed strongly by the English, and crushed this rising with such complete success that he not only drove Robert and his supporters from England, but also followed them across the channel, and defeated them at the Battle of Tenchebrai, in 1106.

Robert of Normandy was brought back to England and imprisoned for life in Cardiff Castle. Thus Normandy was annexed to England.

Henry and the Church

Although Henry had restored peace to the land, fresh trouble arose between the king and the church. Disputes had been going on in Europe for many years concerning the election and investiture of bishops. Henry claimed the right to invest his bishops with the ring and crozier or staff of office, and also demanded that they should pay homage to him for their lands, while the Pope demanded the right to elect and invest the bishops, and refused to permit them to do homage to an earthly sovereign.

In 1107 Henry came to an agreement with Anselm and the Pope. By this he promised to allow the



How people dressed in Norman times

church to elect and invest its bishops, while the king retained their homage, saying: "The clergy hold lands from me, and must therefore respect and obey me as their landlord."

How Henry governed England

Henry is often called "the Lion of Justice" because he gave the country a strong and efficient government. He collected a body of learned men, whom he formed into two courts for the administration of justice.

The one, called the Court of Exchequer, collected the money from the royal domains, feudal dues, and all taxes due to the king, meeting twice a year for this purpose.

The other, the Curia Regis, or King's Court, dealt with the offences of the barons, and tried those cases from the lesser courts (shire or hundred moots) which could not be settled locally.

Travelling justices were sent all over the country to see that the law was fairly administered by the great barons in the local courts. Thus Henry tried to give the same justice to every man in the land.

The last years of Henry's life were darkened by the death of his only son, William, who was drowned in the loss of the White Ship, on his return from a visit to Normandy.

His only surviving child was a daughter, Matilda, and as he wished to make certain that she should succeed him, he summoned the Great Council to Windsor and persuaded the barons to swear to support her. David, King of Scotland, Matilda's

uncle, was at the head of the barons who took this oath. As David owned land in England he was an English baron and had to do homage to the English king. This homage, however, was only for his English lands—his kingdom of Scotland was free.

Henry died in 1135, and Stephen, his nephew, son of Adela, the daughter of William the Conqueror, seized the throne. The new king, Stephen, was supported by Normans and English alike, as they all objected to the rule of a woman.

Stephen was a brave soldier, but he was a weak king. The barons were quick to realize this. They built castles which they strongly fortified, they imprisoned all who had money, and tortured them greatly for their gold and silver. (See extract 2 on page 89.)

Then civil war broke out, raging for twelve years over the length and breadth of the land. David, King of Scotland, marched southwards with an army of Scots to support Matilda's claim to the throne. They plundered and destroyed all that lay in their path, until in 1138, Stephen's army met them at Northallerton and gained a great victory over the Scots. This battle was called the Battle of the Standard, from the tall mast and cross carried by Stephen's soldiers. Victory came first to Stephen, then to Matilda; but finally the country wearied of the long wars and the desolation they caused. An arrangement was made at the Treaty of Wallingford in 1153 that Stephen should reign undisturbed during his lifetime, and that at his death the crown should pass to Matilda's son Henry.

The following year, 1154, Stephen died, thus ending one of the most disastrous reigns in history

Life in Norman England: A Norman Manor

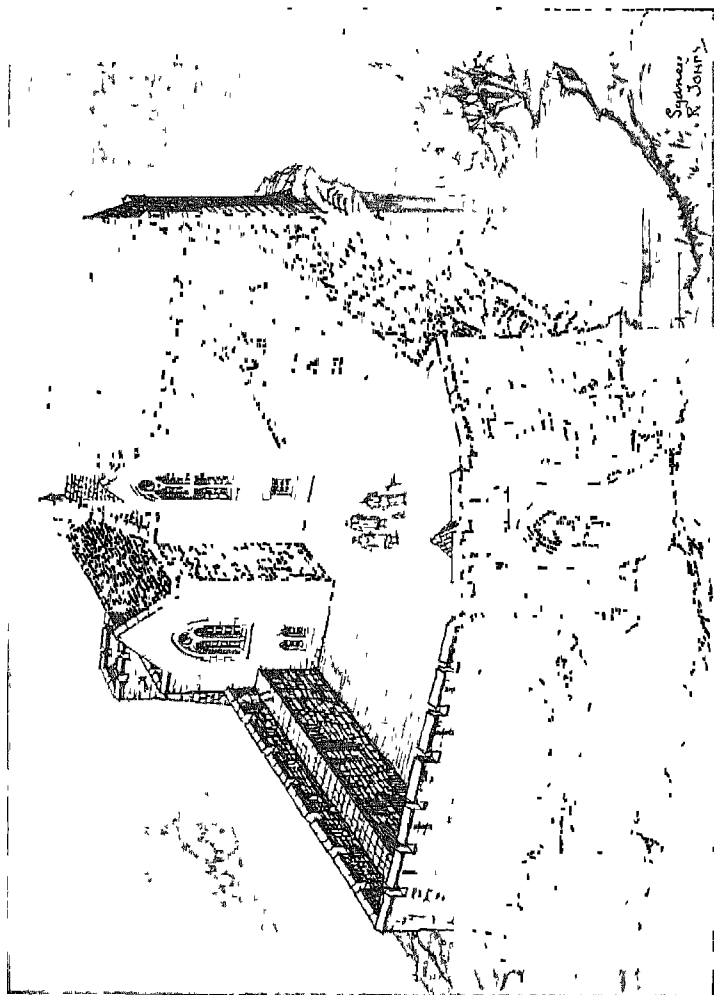
You have learned how William the Conqueror claimed all the land after his conquests, and how, to reward his Norman followers, he sublet a great portion of England to the barons in return for certain dues, and military service

Thus England was now divided into estates, and the estates were again divided into manors.

These manors comprised the old Saxon villages with the arable and pasture land, the woods and forests; but each of them was now the property of one man, the lord of the manor, who was a master rather than a protector as the eorls had been in Saxon times

Like the king, the lord of the manor sublet most of his land, keeping only enough to supply the needs of his family and his household. What the lord retained was called the demesne. It consisted of the park surrounding the manor house, the home farm which usually adjoined the manor house, and a number of acre-strips scattered about the common fields.

The old Saxon system of cultivation still endured. There were three large fields, two of which were used mainly for growing (1) wheat or rye, (2) barley or oats, while the third was rested every third year to strengthen the soil. Further, each man's land was still about 200 yards or a furrow long (furlong), this being roughly the length of land the oxen could plough without stopping.



A Manor House
 Notice the high
 wall, moat, and
 drawbridge for
 protection in
 time of war

These strips lay in different parts of the common fields, being separated only by narrow stretches of grass, called balks. The villagers who held these strips were known as freemen, villeins, and cottars.

The freemen paid a certain rent to the lord for their land, but, as their name implies, they were free to go away to another manor if they wished, or they could hand over their holding to someone else. However, all the freemen had to do military service for the lord if he called on them.

The next in rank below the freemen were the villeins—the word being the Norman word for villagers.

These men generally paid for the land they held by working on the lord's demesne for three days of each week, and at the busiest times, such as seed-time and harvest, they had to work extra hours. This additional work was called boon work, and was very much resented by the villeins, who were called away from their own land just when they needed most time there.

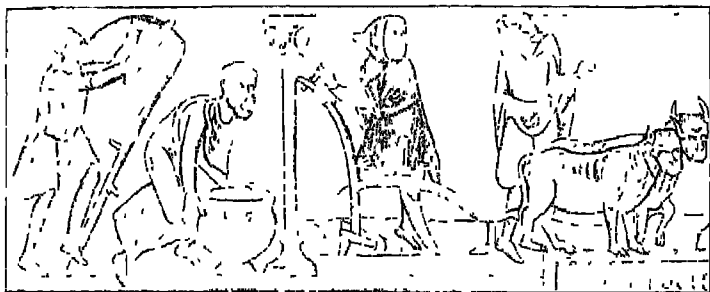
Besides working for the lord, the villein paid goods in kind at certain fixed times, for example, eggs at Easter, hens at Christmas, and wheat and oats at harvest time. The villein was tied to the land, and could not leave the lord's manor where he was born; his holding passed from father to son, and where there were no children, to the lord of the manor.

The cottars held less land than the villeins, and therefore paid less rent and gave fewer hours to their overlord. Thus their free time was greater

than that of the villein, and when they had cultivated their own plots, the cottars could work as hired labourers for wages.

To ensure that the lord's work was not neglected, he appointed several officers.

The steward was the most important of these, as he usually had to supervise several manors. His duty was to see that rents were paid, and that the duties of tenants were properly performed.



Farm workers as an artist of the middle ages drew them

The bailiff was next in rank, he being in charge of the estate. He kept an account of all the work done on the manor, and bought and sold stock for the lord at the local fairs and markets.

The hayward was employed at ploughing, harrowing, haymaking, and harvesting time, to see that the work was satisfactory. The pinder was in charge of the pound, where lost animals were kept until claimed by their owners, while in each village there was usually a smith, a swineherd, and a miller.

The mill generally belonged to the lord, the villagers paying him for the grinding of their corn either in money or in flour.

Freemen, villeins, and cottais had to attend the Court of Justice, presided over by the lord of the manor, or, in his absence, by his steward.

These courts were held every three weeks, and the jury was made up of twelve of the villagers. All local crimes and disputes were settled in these manor courts.

Now let us see how the people were housed on these Norman manors.

The manor house, where the lord lived, was the largest and best in the village. It was generally built of stone, and fortified against attack by a moat and wall. These manor houses varied greatly in size, according to the wealth of their owners.

There were always three important rooms; the hall, which was the largest room, was used mainly for meals, although at night it served also for the bedroom of most of the servants—rushes being strewn over the floor after the trestle tables were removed.

The kitchen opened out of the hall. This was generally a small room, most of the cooking being done out of doors to avoid smoking the other parts of the manor house.

Then came the solar or sun room, which was always the most comfortable in the house, being the bedroom and sitting-room of the lord and his lady.

Stables, bakehouses, barns, and other buildings lay outside the hall; and the whole was surrounded by a park, in which there was usually a fish pond to provide the fish for fast days.

Near the manor house, and sometimes actually in

the park, the church was built, and beside it the rectory

The villeins lived in mean huts of wattles, plastered with clay, and these were usually clustered together near the arable land. A hole in the roof served as a chimney, there were narrow openings in the walls for windows, and straw or rushes covered the muddy floor.

At this time the lives of the peasant class were indeed hard, and their comforts few.

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

WILLIAM RUFUS

Red hair—great strength—extravagant—strong-willed.
First difficulty—crushed Bishop Odo's rebellion—
punished the rebels

HOW WILLIAM EXTORTED MONEY.

- 1 Barons heavily taxed
- 2 English forced to pay dues, &c
- 3 Vacancies of the clergy not filled.

LAND EXPANSION

- 1 William conquered Cumberland
2. Gained much land in Wales
3. Normandy—how acquired.

WILLIAM'S DEATH

Where killed—burial—cause.

HENRY I

Reason of accession—Charter of Liberties—Anselm—
Margaret of Scotland—rebellion against Henry—
results.

HENRY AND THE CHURCH.

- 1 Church to elect and invest their bishops
- 2 To pay homage to the king

HENRY'S GOVERNMENT AND DEATH

Just—Court of Exchequer—Curia Regis Death of
Henry's son—effect on succession—Great Council
at Windsor.

STEPHEN

Seized throne—brave soldier—weak king—result—barons
built castles—tortured for wealth

CIVIL WAR

Scots supported Matilda—Battle of Northallerton—result
—Treaty of Wallingford

LIFE IN NORMAN ENGLAND

1. *Land and People* Estates—manors—lord of manor—
system of cultivation of land—freemen, their work
and duties—villeins, their work and duties—cottars,
their work and duties—officers of lord of manor
and their various duties—work of Court of Justice
2. *Manor House* Lord's house—largest—stone-built—
rooms—hall—cooking—stables—park—church—
homes of villeins

EXERCISES

1. Write a short description of William II's character
2. State how William extorted money from his people
3. In what ways did William add lands to England?
4. Say what you know of the following Charter of
Liberties, Anselm, David of Scotland, Court of Exchequer,
Curia Regis, Great Council of Windsor.

- 5 What dispute did Henry I have with the church, and how did it end?
- 6 Write a description of a Norman Manor House.
- 7 What do you know of the following demesne, furrow long, villeins, balks, cottars, freemen, steward?
- 8 What was the work of the manor courts?
- 9 Give a short description of the homes of the villeins.
- 10 What was the result of the Battle of Northallerton? Give another name for it, and why was it so-called?
11. What was the Treaty of Wallingford?

EXTRACTS

PROMISES OF WILLIAM II DURING HIS ILLNESS

1. A.D. 1093 "In this year during Lent was King William at Gloucester, so sick that he was by all reported dead And in his illness, he made many good promises, to lead his own life aright, to grant peace and protection to the churches of God, and never more again with fee to sell; to have none but righteous laws amongst his people The Archbishopric of Canterbury, that before remained in his hand, he transferred to Anselm, who was before Abbot of Bec"—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

BUILDING OF CASTLES BY REBEL BARONS IN
STEPHEN'S REIGN

2 AD 1137 "When the traitors understood that he (Stephen) was a mild man, and soft and good, and no justice executed, then did they all wonder They had done him homage and sworn oaths, but they no truth maintained They were all forsworn, and forgetful of their troth, for every rich man built his castles, which they held against him, and they filled the land full of castles Then took they those whom they

supposed to have any goods, both by night and by day, and thiew them into prison for their gold and silver, and inflicted on them unutterable tortures"—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

SCARCITY OF FOOD IN STEPHEN'S REIGN

3. A D 1137 "Then was corn dear, and flesh and cheese and butter, for none was there in the land Wretched men starved of hunger They said openly that Christ slept and his Saints"—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1.

1. What promises did William II make during his illness? Did he fulfil them?
- 2 Why did Wilham II refuse to fill the vacant sees of the church?

EXTRACT 2.

1. Which Norman king had refused the barons the right to build castles without his permission, and why?
- 2 What other claimant was there besides Stephen to the English throne after the death of Henry I, and why did the great nobles choose Stephen to be their king?

EXTRACT 3

- 1 What made food so scarce and dear during Stephen's reign?
- 2 Why was it said that "Christ slept and his Saints"?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL READING

- Ivy Bolton *The King's Minstrel*
 Wilmot Buxton. *Anselm*.
 G E Bland. *The Normans in England*
 Rudyard Kipling. *Puck of Pook's Hill* and *Rewards and Fairies*

SIXTH PERIOD

THE MONASTERIES

You will remember that from Anglo-Saxon times the monasteries had been the chief homes of learning in England

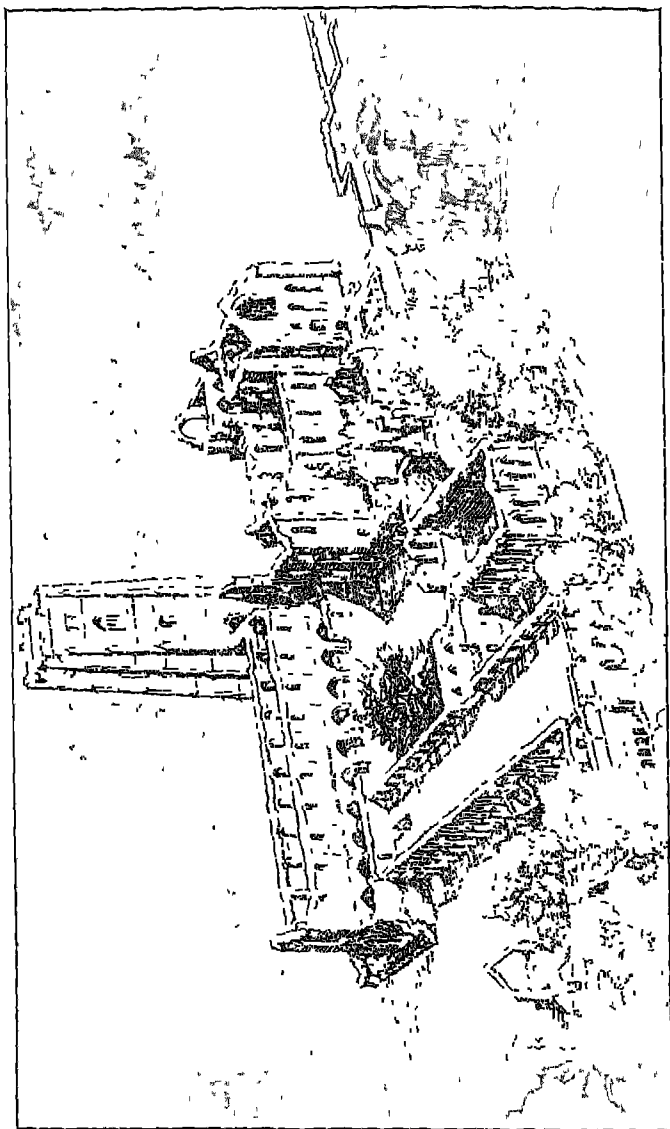
Here were trained men like Aidan and Bede, who went forth as missionaries and teachers amongst the people

All the early books were copied or written on parchment by the monks; and translations of the scriptures were made by Caedmon, our first English poet, a worker in the abbey at Whitby

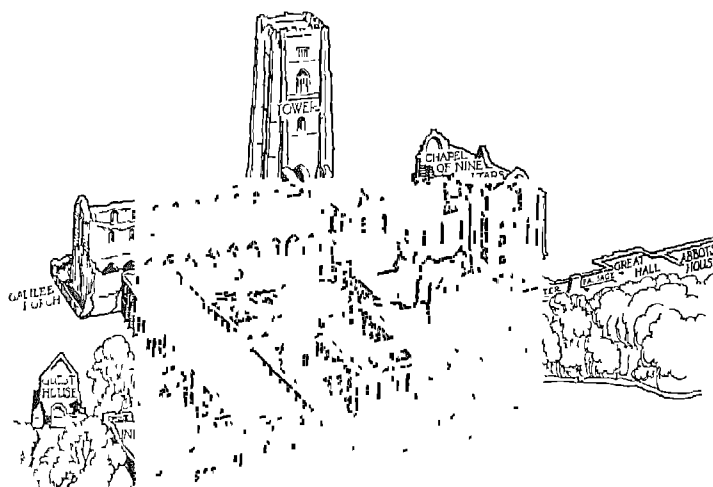
After the destruction of the monasteries by the Danes in their early raids on England, Alfred the Great gave money to the monks to rebuild their abbeys and churches; and the restored monasteries once more became the schools of the land.

Amid the storm of civil war during Stephen's reign, many men took refuge in the monasteries, which now had large estates of their own, and were to be found near most of the villages in England.

As the monasteries had grown rich, they proved a blessing to the poor and needy. These were fed and housed by the monks, who also ministered to the wants of the sick, taught in the schools attached to the monasteries, and acted as letter writers and ministers



Bird's-eye view of Fountains Abbey, as it is to-day See key on opposite page



A key to the view of Fountains Abbey given on the page opposite

How the Monks Lived

The life of a monk was a busy one. He had to attend religious services at intervals of three hours, from six o'clock in the morning until twelve o'clock at night, while, in addition, there was the land attached to the monastery to be cultivated, the household duties to be performed, the beautiful decorations and writings on parchment and vellum to be done, and the many calls from the outside world to be attended to.

Description of a Monastery

Monasteries consisted of a number of buildings enclosed by a strong stone wall. So well were they built that, in spite of the ravages of time, the ruins

of many of them can still be seen to-day, as at Tintern Abbey and Fountains Abbey

The church was the most beautiful part of the monastery. It had fine stained glass windows, and great carved pillars which supported the roof. The walls were frequently ornamented with pictures painted by the monks

Near the church, the cloisters were usually found. These were covered passages, where the monks used to sit and work

The refectory was situated near the south cloister. Here the monks dined at long wooden trestle tables, while the dormitories, where they slept, were not far away.

Then there were the kitchens, where the meals were prepared and the food stored, and the almonry, where alms in the form of food, clothes, or money, were given to those who needed them. As long as the monks remained good and religious, and carried out the rules laid down by their founders, the monasteries were a source of much good in the land, but as they grew wealthy, and more powerful, many of the monks became idle and wicked, and this led, in later times, to the destruction of the monasteries.

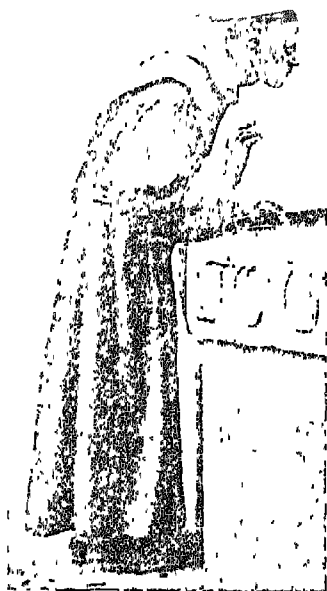
The Friars

In the reign of Henry III, two famous orders of friars, the Franciscans and the Dominicans, settled in England. The word "friar" is derived from a Latin word meaning brother. The difference between a monk and a friar is that a monk stays

in his monastery while a friar goes about amongst the people. These men, whose work was to serve God by helping their fellow men, laboured hard to deserve their honourable title.

The founder of the Franciscan order was an Italian named Francis, who was born at Assisi. He was the son of a wealthy merchant, and, as a boy, had money and riches lavished on him; but meeting a man stricken with leprosy—that terrible scourge of the Middle Ages which ate away the flesh of the victims, and made them loathsome to look upon—Francis kissed the victim's hand, and gave him alms. From that day, he devoted his life to relieving the sufferings of the poor. He clothed himself in a coarse grey robe, with a rope bound round his waist, and went about with bare feet. His zeal, piety, and kindness of heart attracted many devoted followers to his side, and he formed the order known as the Franciscan Friars.

These grey friars, as they were often called from the colour of their robes, had no money—for they realized that the love of riches had made some of the monks and priests idle—but they did not starve. They were kind to everyone, were greatly beloved, and



Francis of Assisi

were fed by the peasants among whom they worked. The chief mission of the Franciscans was to care for the sick and the suffering. Another order of friars, the Dominicans or black friars, went about preaching and teaching the people. They were called Black Friars because they wore a cowled black cloak.

After St. Francis, their founder, died, most of the friars forgot his teaching, and accepted rich gifts and money to build themselves beautiful houses and churches. However, they remained, even to the time of the Reformation, the chief preachers and the healers of the sick.

Henry II, the first Plantagenet

By the provisions of the Treaty of Wallingford, Henry II ascended the English throne on the death of Stephen in 1154.

With him began the Plantagenet line of kings. The name Plantagenet was derived from *Planta Genista*, the Latin name for the shrub called broom, a sprig of which Henry's father, the Count of Anjou, used to wear in his helmet when he went to war.

His Dominions

Although only a young man of twenty-one, Henry inherited such vast possessions that he was the most powerful monarch in western Europe. Anjou and Touraine came to him from his father, England, Normandy, and Maine from his mother, and Aquitaine from his wife Eleanor; while, by laying the foundations of English rule in Ireland, Henry further strengthened his power abroad.



The Dominions of Henry II

Henry II and Ireland

In the second year of his reign, one of the Irish rulers, Dermot, King of Leinster, appealed to Henry II for help against enemies who had driven him from his dominions

Henry sent Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, who soon restored order, and regained Dermot's lost estates, driving the Irish to the west, much in the same way as the Britons had been driven by the English into Wales

Henry himself crossed to Ireland to show that he was the sovereign of the newly-won lands, and was acknowledged overlord of the whole country. However, he was recalled to settle disputes at home before he could completely subdue the whole of Ireland, and although the English king was recognized in name as King of Ireland, it was many years before this was established in fact.

Restoration of Order

Probably the greatest thing Henry II did was the system of law which he set up. He established trial by jury, stating that twelve good men of each hundred, with four from each township, should be sworn to present those who were reputed to be criminals within their district for trial by ordeal. Thus the jurors acted as judges as well as witnesses; and our grand jury, which was abolished in the year 1933, was the direct descendant of this method.

Travelling or itinerant justices were again sent round to all the local courts, as they had been in the

days of Henry I, but officials trained in Henry II's own courts took the place of the sheriffs, who had up to this time been selected from the wealthy landowners. These officials, together with the twelve chosen men just mentioned, formed the Assize, and as the jury had already discussed the crimes of the accused persons, the king's justices merely decided the punishment.

Although 800 years have passed since these assizes, or sittings of the judges, were first held in all the shire courts of England, this method still persists to-day. Thus, although the barons' private courts of justice were not actually abolished, all their power was taken from them; the king's justices settled all questions of importance, and all accused persons could claim trial by the impartial officials of the king.

Henry and Becket

The law courts of the church now claimed the king's attention

These, you will remember, had been separated from the civil courts by William I

Many clergy who were murderers and the like had escaped with a light punishment at their trial in the church courts, which never inflicted the death penalty. So Henry II claimed that priests accused of crime should be tried by the king's judges. Thomas à Becket, the Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to agree to this.

Constitutions of Clarendon

Henry was greatly enraged at Becket's refusal to agree with him. So he drew up the Constitutions of Clarendon in 1164 which brought the clergy more under the control of the king. Amongst other things, they provided that.

- (1) No prelate should be appointed without the king's consent
- (2) Clergy accused of crimes, if found guilty in the Church courts, should be degraded from their orders, and should then be handed over to the king's courts for punishment

Becket regarded it as infamous that a priest should be tried a second time for the same offence, but he yielded to the entreaties of the bishops, who, to prevent further quarrels between Henry II and Becket, begged the archbishop to agree to the Constitutions of Clarendon.

However, the Pope, on learning of Becket's submission to Henry, was greatly angered, and so Becket refused to carry out his promise of agreement.

Henry II summoned him at once to a council at Northampton, where he accused Becket of treason.

To escape the fury of the king's anger, the archbishop fled to France, where he remained for six years.

Then the king patched up a temporary peace with him, and Becket returned to England. The peace, however, was short-lived, for Becket continued to uphold vigorously the rights of the Church.



Bishop and Clergy of the time of Becket

Tired of the persistent opposition of Becket to his wishes, Henry II, in a burst of temper, turned to the members of his court, saying "Is there no one among ye, who will rid me of this turbulent priest?" Taking him at his word, four knights whom Becket had personally offended, hastened to Canterbury, where they entered the cathedral during the evening service. Becket was foully murdered on the steps of the altar. His death horrified friend and foe alike; and Henry II, to prove his penitence, made a pilgrimage to the tomb of the martyr, allowing himself to be scourged, with bare back, by the monks, to atone for his sin.

Henry II had to repeal the Constitutions of Clarendon, and three hundred years passed before clergy were made liable to be tried and punished for crimes in the same courts and in the same way as laymen.

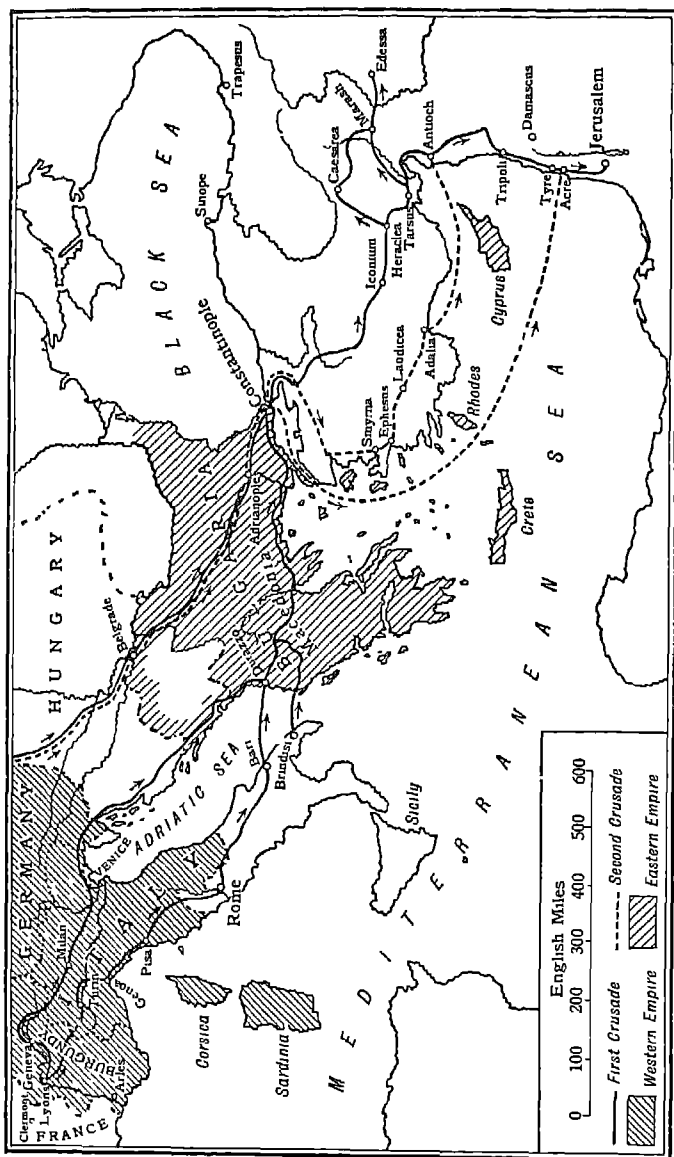
Pilgrims to Palestine

When Henry II died in 1189, his son, Richard I, succeeded him. This king won great fame for England as one of the leaders of the Third Crusade.

From very early times the Christian people of Europe had made pilgrimages to Palestine in order to see the places where Jesus Christ had lived. Palestine belonged to the Mohammedans, who did not believe in Jesus, but were quite friendly with the Christians, and allowed them to visit the country in ever-increasing numbers. It was the custom for a Christian pilgrim to wear a long, grey woollen robe, on the shoulder of which was a cross, which varied in colour according to his nationality, for example, an Englishman had a white cross. Each pilgrim went barefoot, and carried a staff.

Reason for Crusades

In the eleventh century a very fierce tribe of Mohammedans, called Turks, captured the Holy City of Jerusalem, and refused to let the Christians worship there. This caused great distress of mind in Europe, and the Pope, as head of the Church, called a great meeting at Clermont in France in 1095. Here it was decided to fight the Turks in order to get back Jerusalem. As the Christians wore



The First and Second Crusades

crosses to show that they were soldiers of Christ, the wars which followed were called " Wars of the Cross ", or " Crusades ". There were seven great Crusades, besides many smaller ones, and they lasted altogether 200 years

The Crusades

The first Crusade succeeded in taking Jerusalem. As feudalism was then becoming common all over Europe, the Crusaders began to rule the Holy Land in the same way. They appointed a king to rule over the new " Kingdom of Jerusalem ", and his vassals were pledged to defend the Holy Land from the Turks

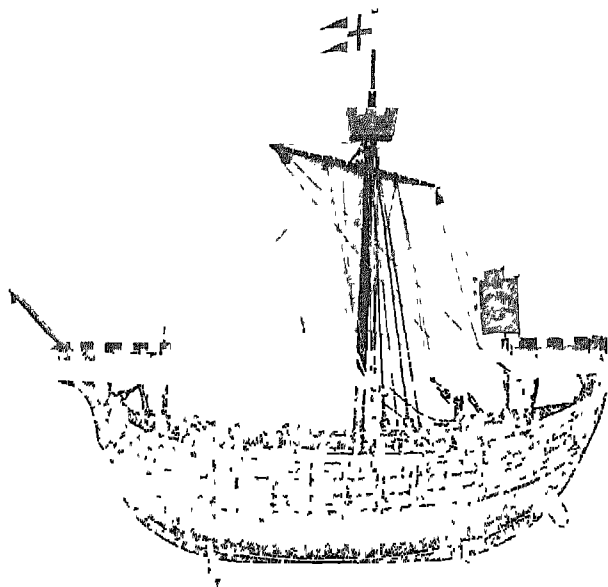
As this new army was too small, two bands of knights formed two other armies—the Knights of St. John, and the Templars. These knights lived like monks in monasteries, when they were not actually fighting. Gradually the monasteries of the Templars began to appear all over Europe, and several of their " Temples " can still be seen in England to-day (London, Canterbury, Temple Balsall, &c)

When the Turks won a great victory over the Christians, a second Crusade set out to prevent the capture of Jerusalem. So many men died from disease and hardship before arriving in Palestine that this Crusade was of very little use

Then the great Turkish leader, named Saladin, captured Jerusalem, and the people of Europe got together a Third Crusade as quickly as possible.

The Third Crusade was the most important of all,

and it was led by three kings—Richard I of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederick Barbarossa, or Redbeard, of Germany. Richard and Philip went by sea to Palestine, but Frederick went overland through Asia Minor. The story is told,



English ship of the twelfth century

that a witch had prophesied that he would die by drowning, so he went overland to escape his fate. However, he was drowned while attempting to cross a river in Asia Minor, and the Third Crusade lost one of its leaders

The first task that awaited Richard and Philip, when they arrived in Palestine, was to capture Acre.

This was done with great difficulty, and then Philip, having tired of fighting, returned home. Richard was left to go on to Jerusalem alone, but he found it impossible to take the city with his small army. A treaty was made giving Acre and the lands round it to the Christians, while Jerusalem and the rest of Palestine remained in the hands of Saladin.

All the Crusades which followed were unsuccessful in their attempts to capture Jerusalem. Gradually the Turks regained possession of those parts of Palestine in the hands of the Christians, who finally left the Holy Land in 1291. Jerusalem remained in the hands of the Turks until 1917, when it was taken from them by General Allenby in the Great War (1914-1918).

Effects of the Crusades

Although the Crusades failed in their main object of capturing Jerusalem, much good resulted from them. Before this time, people had not travelled far from their own homes, and knew very little about the world they lived in. During the period of the Crusades, the pilgrims passed through other countries and became familiar with the customs of the people in them.

From the people of the east they learned how to use the easy Asiatic figures instead of the Roman numerals which they had used before. They learnt the use of camphor, senna, rhubarb, and alcohol as medicines. They found out how to make paper for use instead of parchment, and borrowed some

Arabian words to enrich their own language, e g almanac.

Above all, the people of Europe and Asia began to trade regularly with each other. All kinds of luxuries were brought back from the east. New materials, such as cotton, damask, and muslin were used. Excellent fruits—dates, figs, plums, apricots, lemons, and melons—were eaten. Such widely differing luxuries as sugar, spices, and glass mirrors were brought back to Europe by traders.

Thus it can be seen how the lives of the people were enriched as a result of the Crusades.

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

THE MONASTERIES

Then Early Work

Men trained as missionaries, teachers—books written—scriptures—refuge in time of war

Life in a Monastery

The poor—sick—schools—ministers—services—land—household duties—writings—decorative work

Plan of a Monastery

Outbuildings—church—cloister—refectory—dormitories—kitchens—almonry

The Friars

Francis of Assisi—grey friars—poverty—their mission
Dominicans—black friars—their work—death of Francis—result

Henry II

Wallingford—accession—Plantagenet—Count of Anjou—Dermot—Strongbow

Restoration of Order.

Civil wars—wise government—castles—hired soldiers—
scutage, advantages of—feudalism.

Law Giver

Trial by jury—work of jurors—justices—assize—punish-
ment—Barons' courts—Courts of the Church—
Constitutions of Clarendon.

Becket

Archbishop of Canterbury—Pope's action—Northampton
—flight to France—peace—death.

THE CRUSADES

Crusader

Christian—cross—barefoot—reasons for Crusades

First Crusade

Meaning of—Jerusalem—Knights of St John and the
Templars

Third Crusade

Richard—Philip—Frederick—Acre—Saladin—treaty

Good Results of Crusades

Travel—geography—customs of people—figures—lan-
guage words—medicines—trade

EXERCISES

- 1 What good works did the monasteries effect?
- 2 Give reasons why the monasteries were ultimately destroyed
- 3 What possessions did Henry II inherit when he came to the throne?

4 What do you know of Wallingford, trial by ordeal, scutage, Plantagenet, assize?

5 Why was England in need of a strong king at this time?

6 In what manner did Henry II lessen the power of the nobles?

7. Say why Becket quarrelled with Henry

8 What was the origin of the Crusades?

9 Write a few lines on the results of the First Crusade.

10 Name the three leaders in the Third Crusade, and say how this Crusade ended

11. Write down some of the results of the Crusades

12 Say what you can about the Franciscan Friars.

PLANS AND MAPS

1 Draw a plan of a monastery, showing the principal buildings

2 Draw a map showing the foreign and English possessions of Henry II

3 Draw a map marking the chief countries engaged in the Crusades

EXTRACTS

1 "I hereby renounce my parents, my brothers and relatives, my friends, my possessions, my property, and the vain and empty glory and pleasure of this world I also renounce my own will, for the will of God. I accept all the hardships of the monastic life, and take the vows of purity, chastity, and poverty, in the hope of heaven, and I promise to remain a monk in the monastery all the days of my life "
—*Monk's Vow* (Taken by all monks when they entered a monastery)

BECKET REFUSES TO AGREE TO THE CONSTITUTIONS OF
CLARENDON

2 "The Prince of famous memory (Henry II) published certain new statutes dealing with the sacred order for the conviction and punishment of criminous clerks, and thought finally to establish these statutes by obtaining the consent of the bishops. He therefore called all the bishops together . . . by flatteries or threats brought all except one to yield and obey the royal will, and to place their seals to the document containing the new laws. All except one, I say, for the Archbishop of Canterbury alone refused to yield, and remained firm against all persuasion. Then the king's wrath blazed out against him, the more vehemently because the Archbishop's offence seemed all the worse to the royal magnificence, on account of the gifts which had been given and received"—William Newburgh, a Chronicler of Newburgh

RICHARD I AT SIEGE OF ACRE

3 "The king, in the course of his march, came to the siege of Acre where he was received with great joy by the besiegers. . . without losing any time the English king, on the third day after his arrival at the siege, ordered the wooden castle which had been made in Sicily and which he had christened 'Mate Grifun', to be put together and set up. Before the dawn of the fourth day the machine stood against the walls of Acre, looking down from its height on the city spread out below. On the top of it were the archers, who after the sun had risen, poured down their missiles unceasingly on the Turks and Thracians. By stones carefully aimed, and slung in quick succession, they broke down the ramparts. The heavier men, the sappers, made a way through underneath the ground, and undermined the foundations of the walls, whilst those armed with shields used their scaling ladders, and sought for an entrance along the ramparts. The king hastened about among the ranks, directing, reproving and encouraging, and so made his presence felt everywhere."—Richard of Devizes, a Chronicler of Devizes.

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1

- 1 What vows did a monk make when he entered a monastery?

EXTRACT 2.

1. What means did Henry II use to obtain the consent of the bishops to his new laws?
- 2 Suggest any reasons why the Archbishop of Canterbury refused to sign the document containing the new laws

EXTRACT 3

- 1 Describe the methods of warfare used by Richard I to gain an entrance to Acre
- 2 What part did the King take in the siege of Acre?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL
READING

- G A Henty *Winning his Spurs*
D H S Cranage *The Home of the Monk*,
W H Hutton *Becket*
Wilmot Buxton *Story of the Crusaders*
Sir Walter Scott *The Talisman*
T L Peacock *Maid Marian*
Strang and Stead *Lionheart*

SEVENTH PERIOD

MAGNA CARTA AND THE GROWTH OF PARLIAMENT

During the ten years of Richard's reign, he only spent six months in England, and in his absence William Longchamp and the Archbishop of Canterbury, Hubert Walter, two wise statesmen, acted as the king's chief deputies.

The English people were hard pressed to provide the large amount of money required by Richard for carrying on his Crusade against the Turks. But they were proud of him as their king, and cheerfully made great sacrifices to enable him to succeed in his task, and to pay the expenses of his campaign.

Little of importance took place in England during Richard's reign, but mention must be made of the extension of the powers of juries, by calling upon them to help in deciding what a man must pay in taxes, and in the selection of local men of repute to try the cases in the shire courts. The work of these local men was similar to that done by justices of the peace of our own day.

John and Prince Arthur

When Richard I died in 1199, his lawful successor was Prince Arthur of Brittany. But John, Richard's younger brother, who had plotted against him to gain the throne whilst he was abroad fighting,

seized the throne, and set out for France to subdue the supporters of his nephew, Arthur. He imprisoned the young prince, and, later, is said to have murdered him by his own hand.

Philip of France, who had supported the cause of Arthur, seized all John's possessions in Normandy as a punishment for this evil deed, but the English people rejoiced at the loss of these foreign lands, for now their king and the great barons could devote all their time to the needs of their English estates.

John and the Pope

John, on his return to England, was soon involved in a new and more serious quarrel

On the death of Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury, the Pope, Innocent III, persuaded the monks to choose Stephen Langton, a good and wise man, to fill the vacant see.

John was furious that he had not been consulted in the matter, and refused to acknowledge Langton.

The Pope immediately placed England under an Interdict, which meant that the churches were closed and all services suspended, even the dead not being allowed burial in the churchyards. John remained stubborn in his refusal to have Langton; so in the next year, 1209, the Pope excommunicated him, thereby refusing to allow him to take any part in the services of the church.

Even this did not weaken John's attitude towards Langton; and in 1212 the Pope threatened to place Philip of France on the English throne. Then, at last, John yielded to all the demands of the Pope.

He not only acknowledged Langton, but also promised to pay a yearly tribute to Rome, and to accept the Pope as his overlord. He thus became the Pope's vassal

Stephen Langton and Magna Carta

John was soon in trouble again. He quarrelled with the barons because they refused to join him in an attempt to recapture the lands in France which he had lost. But the barons and clergy, led by Stephen Langton, the new archbishop, drew up a list of the grievances of Englishmen at that time.

This document they presented to John in a meadow at Runnymede, near Windsor, in June, 1215

Even in this tight corner, John showed his fierce temper, and at first refused to listen to their demands. At length, however, realizing that the whole country was against him, he set his seal to that great charter of English liberties, Magna Carta.

The most important of the sixty-three clauses which made up Magna Carta were.

1. No freeman shall be seized or imprisoned or dispossessed or outlawed, save by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

2. To no man will we sell, or deny, or delay right or justice.

3. The Church of England shall be free.

4. Merchants shall be allowed to travel freely about the country

5. The same weights and measures shall be used throughout the land.

Magna Carta is still preserved, and may be seen in the British Museum with the Royal Seal still hanging from it.

Twenty-five barons were chosen to see that John observed the Charter. "They have given me twenty-five overkings!" cried John, his fury knowing no bounds. But it was too late; the great Charter was law, and we owe to it much of the freedom we enjoy to-day.

John attempted to evade the promises he had made at Runnymede by entreating the Pope to free him from his bond.

This the Pope did, and John collected an army of hired foreign soldiers to resist the barons.

Utterly weary of the misrule and evil actions of John, the barons, in desperation, invited Louis of France to help them to fight their king, and offered him the English throne as a reward.

When civil war was about to break out in 1216, John died, leaving as his successor his son Henry, a boy of nine.

The Regency

Until the boy King Henry came of age, the royal authority passed into the hands of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, and Hubert de Burgh, who both proved wise and able regents. The year following Henry's succession, Marshall, with the support of the Papal Legate, issued the very charter against which John had died fighting, omitting only the clauses concerned with taxation, and the summoning of Parliament.

This won the friendship of the Church party, who rallied to the regent's support when he set out to rid England of Louis and his French troops. This was done on land by a victory at Lincoln, and at sea by another off Dover.

They next restored the castles to the king, and broke up the bands of armed men who pillaged everywhere in the land.

Henry III assumes the Reins of Government

In 1227, however, Henry declared himself of age, and demanded the right to govern England himself.

He soon proved a weak, foolish, extravagant, and untrustworthy king. The Pope, as Henry's overlord, made heavy demands for money from him, and the king himself wasted large sums in useless wars with Louis of France. However, it must be mentioned to the king's credit, that some of this money was spent in building beautiful churches, and that in his reign Westminster Abbey was begun.

Five years after Henry took over the reins of government, he dismissed Hubert de Burgh, his former regent, and filled his court with foreign favourites, who received from him titles and money. His wife was a Frenchwoman, and she, too, was surrounded by foreigners, who were a further drain on the king's purse.

Simon de Montfort

Amongst these Frenchmen was Simon de Montfort, who, although at first as unpopular as the rest of the many foreigners at court, later proved a



The Coronation of a King as an artist who lived in the thirteenth century imagined it

great leader, and sided with the English against the misrule and excessive taxation of Henry III.

Simon married the king's sister, and soon became an Englishman in his ways and conduct. He was made governor of Gascony, the one French province that still belonged to England, and he ruled strictly and justly. When the Gascons complained of his stern rule to Henry, the king took sides against Simon, and it was this breach that led this good and pious man to oppose Henry in his disputes with the barons.



Salisbury Cathedral Built during the reign of Henry III

The Provisions of Oxford

It was the request for a large sum of money to give to the Pope, who was endeavouring to secure the throne of Sicily for Henry's younger son, Edmund, that caused the barons to make a firm and decided stand against Henry. They told him quite plainly that he must use the Great Council, not only as a means of obtaining money, but also to help him in the government. It was said of the Pope and the king "The one drives us, and the other drags us."

The clergy, headed by the Bishop of Lincoln, protested strongly against the king's practice of giving English livings in the Church to foreigners who did not understand a word of English. Moreover, the failure of the harvest caused a famine and great distress over the whole country.

In 1258 all classes united to resist further misgovernment by Henry. The barons armed, with Earl Simon as their leader, and met to present their grievances to the king. Henry III was now thoroughly frightened, and agreed to the appointment of a committee of twenty-four, to decide on necessary reforms.

By the provisions of Oxford, drawn up to meet the existing situation, it was provided

- 1 That four knights should be chosen for each county to present the grievances of their districts.

2. That a sheriff should be elected annually for each county.

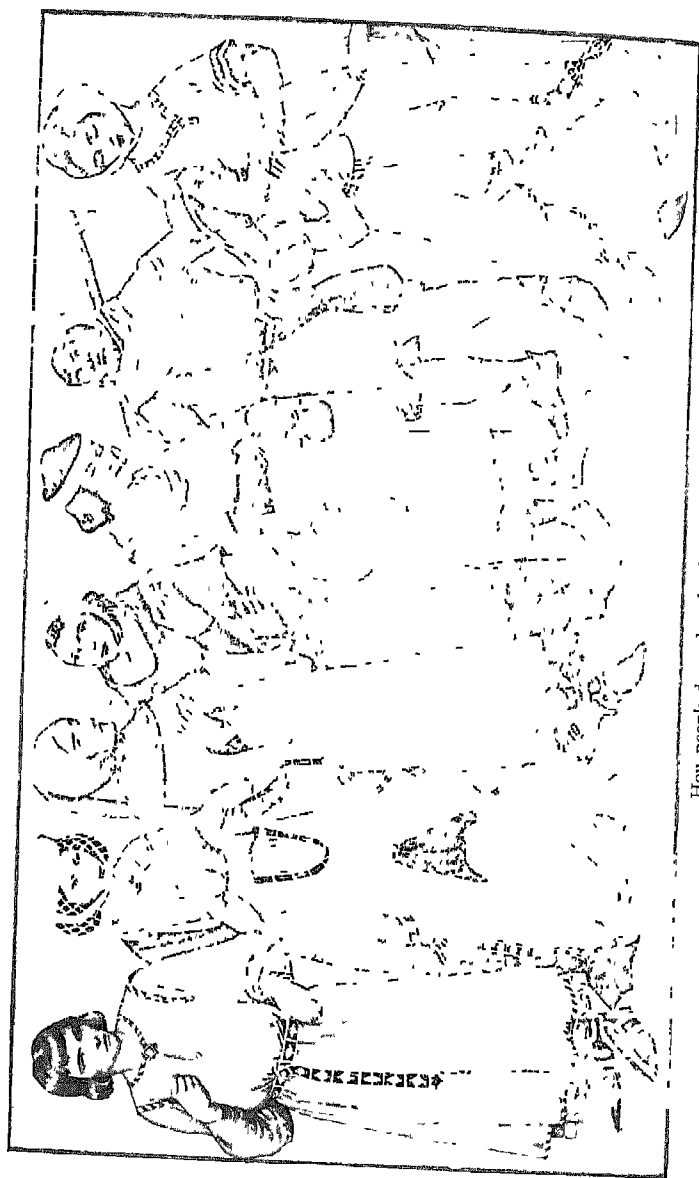
- 3 Parliament was to meet three times a year

- 4 Foreign favourites were to be dismissed from all high offices of state.

5. The king was not to engage in any more European wars

As the expense of attending Parliament was considerable, a body of twelve honest men was elected by the barons to represent the people. These men, together with the King's Council, were to regulate taxation, and to provide for the reasonable wants of the king and his kingdom.

Once again Henry proved unreliable, and having got the Pope to free him from his oath he



How people dressed in the thirteenth century

endeavoured, by forcible means, to recover the authority he had lost.

Civil War

Thus civil war broke out, and the opposing armies met at Lewes in 1264. The result was the complete defeat of the royal forces, and Simon made Henry III and his son, Prince Edward, prisoners.

Simon de Montfort now took complete control of affairs in England, and tried to rule in the best possible way. He had become a faithful patriot of the country of his adoption, and wished to bring about a state of good government. People called him Earl Simon the Righteous, and they loyally supported him as the champion of their cause.

In 1265 Simon called a parliament, when arrangements were made for the release of Prince Edward, who had acted as hostage for his father King Henry. Up to this time, the Great Council had only been an assembly of the great feudal barons and the chief clergy. Now Simon called, in addition to great barons and clergy, two burgesses from certain towns to represent the traders, and two knights from certain shires. Thus for the first time the lesser landowners, the trading classes, and even the freemen, began to have a voice in the government of the country. So this parliament has gone down to history as the first English parliament, and Simon de Montfort as its founder.

However, although it was a step in the right direction, it was not perfect, for Earl Simon only summoned those friendly to him.

By a clever trick Prince Edward managed to escape from his guards, and gathered an army to resist Simon's government.

Simon met Prince Edward's army at Evesham in 1265, where, alas for England, he perished fighting. Thus died one of England's truest and noblest patriots, he was honoured like Thomas à Becket, as a saint and martyr.

The Seventh Crusade

Prince Edward, after restoring order and firmly establishing his father on the throne again, set sail for the Holy Land with a number of barons, to join the Seventh Crusade.

While away, it is said that he escaped death from a dagger wound, through the devotion of his wife, who sucked out the poison. After raising the Siege of Acre and defeating the Saracens, Prince Edward started on his journey homeward. When he reached Sicily in 1272, he received the news of his father's death, and of his own proclamation as king

Edward I and Parliament

Edward I reigned over England for thirty-five years, and during this time he showed himself to be one of our greatest kings; for he was a soldier as brave as Richard the Lion Heart, and a law-giver as wise as Henry II. His motto was "Pactum Serva" or "Keep Faith", a worthy motto for such a great king, and he strove in all his dealings with his people to carry it out.

Edward as Law-giver and Organizer

So much did Edward I accomplish that, at the end of his reign, many of the great institutions, such as the Houses of Parliament and the Courts of Justice, had to a great extent taken the form that they have at the present time.

Edward determined to keep the barons in order, and he forced them to make all payments due to him from their lands, however much they tried to escape.

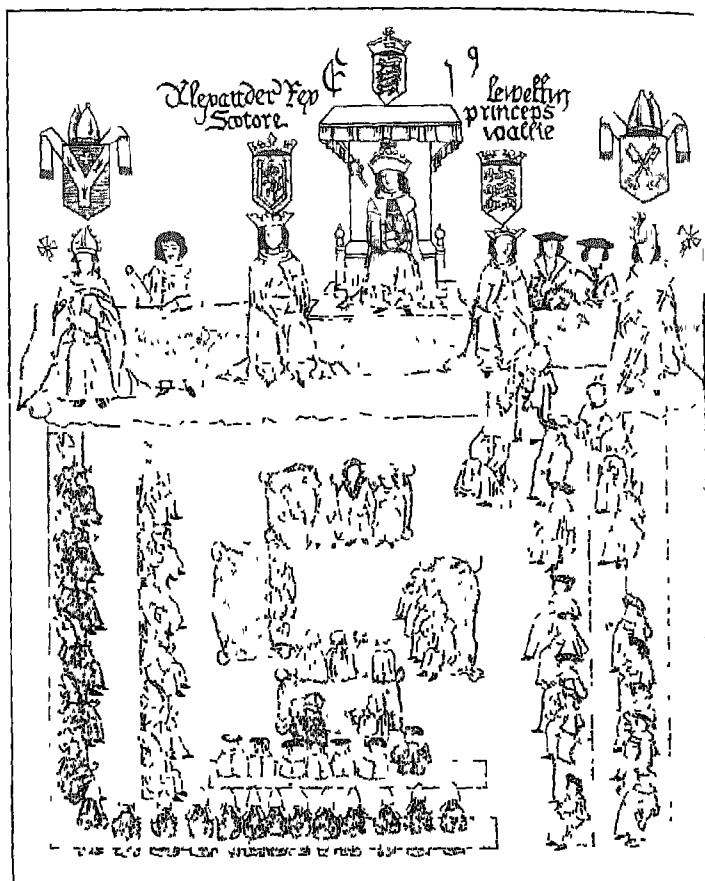
He also struck a great blow at the tottering remains of feudalism, for, by one of his statutes, Edward allowed the free sale and division of great estates; and this tended to weaken the powers of the great barons, by reducing their land ownership. Edward also took care that his law courts in London were doing justice to all who came there.

Edward made laws to protect the townsmen and traders. They told him they were afraid to travel along the roads with their goods because of robbers and outlaws who lay in wait there. So he ordered all thickets to be cut down 200 feet on each side of the road, so that robbers could not hide there. Also the gates of every town were to be shut at sunset, while the raising of the "hue and cry" was not to be neglected when any crimes had been committed.

Edward confirmed the charters of Henry I and Henry II, and agreed not to raise money without the consent of Parliament.

Edward I and the Model Parliament

Edward needed great sums of money to rule the realm in the orderly way which he had set out to



do; so in 1295 he summoned Parliament to grant the money he needed to pay his soldiers who carried on his wars, his judges, and his servants. Up to the time of Simon de Montfort's first parliament in 1265, only

the great barons and churchmen had been admitted to the Great Council. And, as already pointed out, even this parliament was not fully representative of the English people, for Simon had called only two knights from those shires which were friendly to his policy, and only two burgesses from towns which were on his side in his struggle against Henry III.

Edward I, however, summoned barons, churchmen, two knights from every shire, and two burgesses from every town. Henceforward, knights and townsmen always went to Parliament; and so Edward I's parliament of 1295 is now called the Model Parliament, because all that followed it were modelled upon it.

At first the parties, that is, the barons, churchmen, knights, and townsmen, met in separate rooms; but later the knights and the burgesses began to sit together, and were called the Commons, the great barons were called the Lords; while the churchmen had an assembly of their own called Convocation, though the bishops sat with the Lords as well.

The House of Commons was able to help the king to make good laws about trade and all matters which concerned the towns, and if a king ruled badly, it refused to grant him money.

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

ENGLAND UNDER RICHARD

Richard—William Longchamp—Hubert Walter—Foreign wars—power of juries—Richard's death.

JOHN

John—France—Arthur—Philip of France—John's quarrel—Stephen Langton—Interdict—John excommunicated—Pope's threat—John's submission—list of grievances.

MAGNA CARTA

Runnymede—signing of the Charter—write out five important clauses of Magna Carta

RESULT

John's army—barons—Louis of France—death of John

HENRY III AND SIMON DE MONIFORT

Marshall, Earl of Pembroke—Hubert de Burgh—Charter issued—Lincoln and Dover—castles restored—Henry weak, foolish—Westminster Abbey—Henry's foreign friends—Simon de Montfort—great leader—governor of Gascony—Henry's quarrel with Simon.

PROVISIONS OF OXFORD

Reasons for drawing up—clauses

CIVIL WAR

• Lewes—Simon's victory—Henry imprisoned—first parliament—why so called—Edward's escape—Simon's defeat—Evesham.

EDWARD I

Character—founded institutions which exist to-day.

EDWARD AS LAW-GIVER

Barons—feudalism—law-courts in London—laws for townsmen and traders—thickets—town gates—"hue and cry"—money raised

MODEL PARLIAMENT

Money—reasons—1295—Model Parliament—barons—clergy—knights—burgesses—Commons—Lords—grants to king

EXERCISES

- 1 How was England governed during the absence of Richard I?
- 2 How did John obtain the throne?
- 3 Write a short account of the quarrel between the Pope and John
- 4 Why was Magna Carta drawn up? Write down the date and place of signing by John
- 5 Name the two regents in the beginning of Henry III's reign What efforts did they make to get rid of Louis of France?
- 6 Give reasons why Henry III became unpopular with his people
- 7 Say what you know of Simon de Montfort
8. State one fact about each of the following. Lincoln, Dover, Lewes, Oxford, Evesham.
- 9 Describe the character of Edward I
- 10 What legal reforms did Edward I introduce?
- 11 What is meant by the following "Hue and cry", Model Parliament?

MAPS

1. Draw a map inserting the following places Brittany, Gascony, France, Sicily, Acre
- 2 On a map of England indicate the following places: Windsor, Runnymede, Lincoln, Dover, Oxford, Lewes, Evesham

EXTRACTS

JOHN AT RUNNYMEDE, 1215

1. "A day was arranged for an interview, and the barons, accompanied by a large body of splendid troops armed at all points, assembled in the meadow called Runnymede, between Windsor and Staines There they pitched their

tents and took up their quarters. The King and his followers remained apart in their tents in the same meadow. The Archbishop of Canterbury and a great number of other bishops, and a few barons, acted as mediators, and peace was then made between the King and the barons. All swore upon holy relics to keep it sacred, and the King swore also. Shortly afterwards the terms of peace were embodied in a Charter, and every county in England received a similar Charter sealed with the King's Seal"—Ralph de Coggeshall, *a Chronicler*

MEETING AT OXFORD TO DRAW UP PROVISIONS OF OXFORD

2. "When the magnates of England saw the departure of Richard, King of Germany, who while he was in England had governed the King and the country, and had been the real head of all affairs, and thought that there was no hope of his return, considering also that the King himself was useless and incapable of carrying on the government, they assembled at Oxford, about the feast of St Barnabas, and allied themselves against their Lord and King, the anointed of God. Having decided on a plan of action, they proceeded to take the reins of government entirely into their own hands, ordaining that in future a council of twenty-four should be elected from the greater and more powerful men of the kingdom, and that these should rule the country in the manner which should be most for the general good. In this way the order of nature was reversed, and the King, who ought to have ruled over his subjects, was ruled over by them"—*Provisions of Oxford*

SUMMONS TO THE MODEL PARLIAMENT, 1295

3. "We strictly require you to cause two knights from the aforesaid county, two citizens from each city in the same county, and two burgesses from each borough, of those who are especially discreet and capable of labouring, to be elected without delay, and to cause them to come to us at the aforesaid time and place.

“ Moreover, the said knights are to have full and sufficient power for themselves and for the community of the aforesaid county, and the said citizens and burgesses for themselves and the communities of the aforesaid cities and boroughs separately.” (Identical Summons was sent to the Sheriffs of each County)

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1.

To what event does this extract refer? Who was the king concerned, and who led the barons?

EXTRACT 2.

What events led up to the drafting of the Provisions of Oxford, and in whose reign were they adopted?

EXTRACT 3

Which king of England issued this writ? To which parliament does it refer, and why was it so named?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL READING

J G Edgar *Runnymede and Lincoln Fair*.

Gertrude Hollis *Spurs and Bridle*.

Sir Walter Scott *Ivanhoe*

Rudyard Kipling *Puck of Pook's Hill*.

Prothero: *Simon de Montfort*

E. Lynn: *Robin Hood and his Merry Men*.

D. Ker: *The Earl's White Cross*.

EIGHTH PERIOD

WALES AND SCOTLAND

We have seen how Edward I tried to unite the English nation and rule them with good laws. He was not content with this alone. He strove to join Wales and Scotland under the English crown.

The Welsh People

When the Britons were driven out of Britain by the Angles and Saxons, many of them went to live among the mountains of Wales, where they were safe from their conquerors. They were called Welsh by the Angles, and this word means foreigners. These fugitive Britons chose three princes to rule over them, one for north Wales, one for south Wales, and one for middle Wales

For the most part the Welsh were hunters, fishermen, and herdsmen, amongst their wild mountains there was little room for towns or ploughed land. Moreover, they preserved their own language, customs, and habits. They lived in huts on the mountain sides, they dressed in skins, and they loved poetry and song above all things, holding their bards in high honour. The great Welsh festival of song is still held every year in the open air, and is called the Eisteddfod.

Border Wars

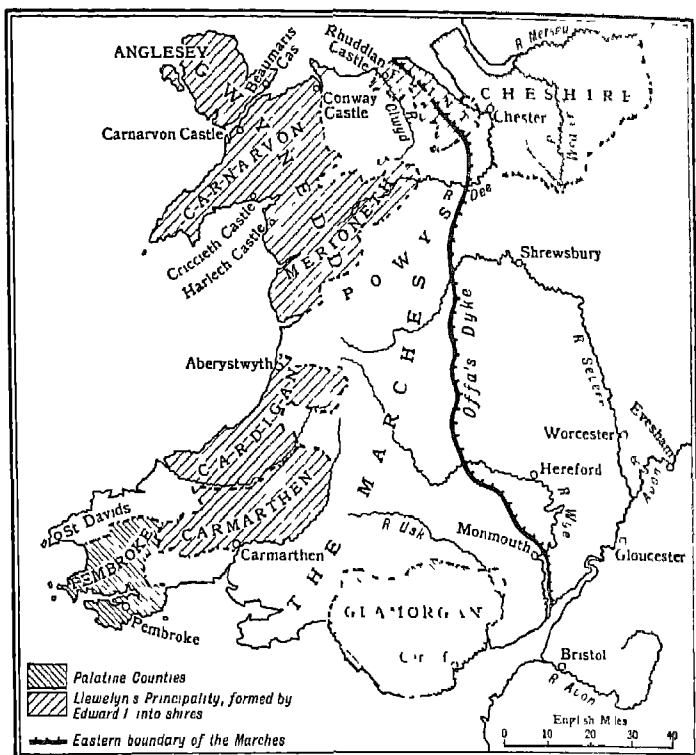
There had been perpetual warfare between the Marcher Lords, as those who lived near the borders of England and Wales were called, and the Welsh chieftains. As far back as Anglo-Saxon days, Offa had built his great dyke to stop the raids of the Welsh; while William the Conqueror had established his fiercest and most unruly barons near the borders, allowing them to keep an army of soldiers in readiness for an attack.

Many times the marches or borderlands were taken by the Marcher Lords, who gradually pushed farther inland, and began to conquer Wales. The many great stone castles found in Wales to-day, such as Carnarvon and Conway Castles, are relics of these days; for the Marcher Lords, having conquered a part of Wales, built strong stone castles to help them to hold their conquered lands.

Edward I and Llewellyn Prince of Wales

When Edward I became king he demanded that the Welsh princes should do homage to him at his coronation. Llewellyn, the strongest of them, refused, and Edward showed his anger by imprisoning the lady Llewellyn loved, who was Elinor de Montfort, daughter of the great Earl Simon. She was shut up for two years, and was only handed over to Llewellyn after his submission to Edward I.

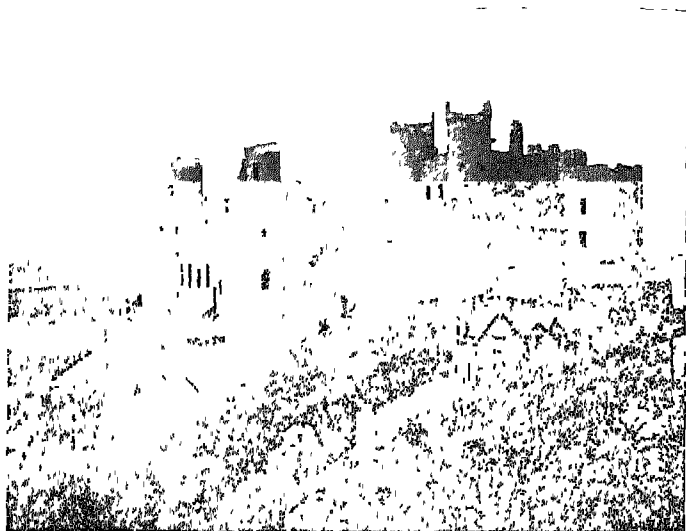
Llewellyn fought many battles, but finally, in 1277, he was driven to take refuge among the heights of Snowdon, where hunger at last forced him to submit.



Wales at the time of Edward I

Note—A palatine was a former court official. In a county palatine the earl had royal powers.

Peace was made between Edward I and the Welsh prince, but Llewellyn broke his word to the English king, and joined forces with his brother David, Prince of South Wales. This roused Edward to great wrath, and he swore to reduce the Welsh to complete submission. Llewellyn was killed, and his head was taken by an English soldier to Edward at Shrewsbury. It was then sent to London and stuck



Harlech Castle as it is to-day

up over one of the great gates of the city. His brother David was executed in the next year as a traitor, and with him died the last of the brave Welsh princes

The First Prince of Wales

At a conference with the remaining Welsh leaders, Edward I promised to give them a prince born in their own land, who could not speak a word of English. They were greatly pleased when, in 1284, he presented to them his baby son Edward, Prince of Wales, who had just been born in Carnarvon Castle.

Ever since, the title Prince of Wales has been held by the eldest son of the English king.

How the Scots became Free

It was during the reign of Edward I that the affairs of England and Scotland became seriously entangled. In early days there had been four kingdoms in Scotland, and it was not until 1034 that these were all joined under one king. From that time onwards, there was almost continual fighting on the borders between England and Scotland. The Scots, however, always remained free, though some of their kings did homage to English kings for lands they held in England. Then in 1174 the Scottish king, William the Lyon, raided England and was captured. He was set free on promising that he would accept Henry II as his overlord. Scotland remained a vassal kingdom till 1189, when Richard I, being hard pressed for money to pay for his foreign wars, sold her her freedom again.

The Maid of Norway

This question of English overlordship of Scotland became important in 1286, when the Scottish king, Alexander III, was killed by a fall from his horse. He was succeeded by his grand-daughter, Margaret, whose mother had married the King of Norway. Edward I, with designs on the Scottish throne, negotiated for a marriage between his son, Prince Edward, and Margaret, the little maid of Norway. The Scots safeguarded their rights by providing that Scotland should remain a separate and free kingdom, and that their laws and customs should be preserved.

A ship was sent to Norway to bring the maid to Scotland, but the young princess died on the journey.

Thus all his plans for a peaceful union of England with Scotland came to nothing.

Edward and Balliol

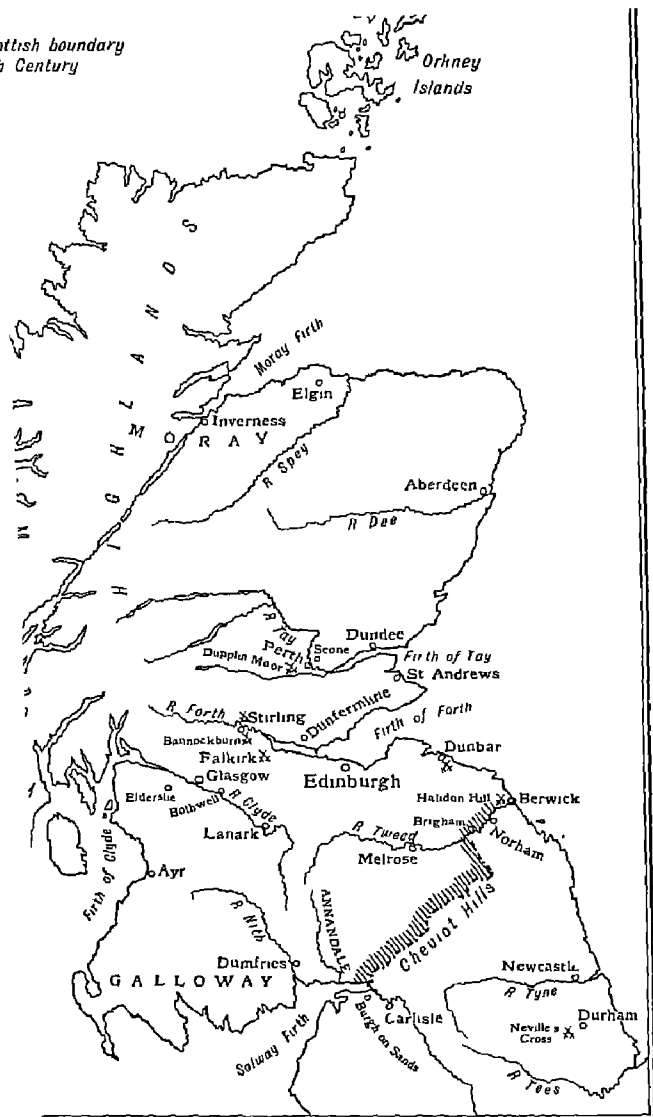
Thirteen different persons now claimed the throne of Scotland, but of these only three were serious claimants, Robert Bruce, John Balliol, and John Hastings. The Scots invited Edward I to settle the dispute concerning the succession, and he decided in favour of Balliol, from whom he demanded homage for the kingdom of Scotland. Having promised this, Balliol was crowned king at Scone in 1290.

Edward now hoped to bring Scotland entirely under the rule of England; but "the Scots are light of heart, fierce and courageous against their enemies, and they love nigh as well death as thralldom" wrote an English writer of the time. And when Edward demanded the right to hear appeals from the Scots against Balliol's decisions, Balliol was deeply offended and protested. Edward persisted in his claim, and actually summoned Balliol to England to hear a case brought against him by a Scottish baron, Macduff. Balliol obeyed, but the independent spirit of the Scots was roused, and they determined to defend their privileges. Thus they forced Balliol to take up arms against Edward, and the Scottish king, in 1295, made an alliance with the French which greatly infuriated the English king, as he was himself at war with France.

Edward I attacks Scotland

Orders were at once given for an attack on Berwick, where the townsmen were brutally massacred

Scottish boundary
13th Century



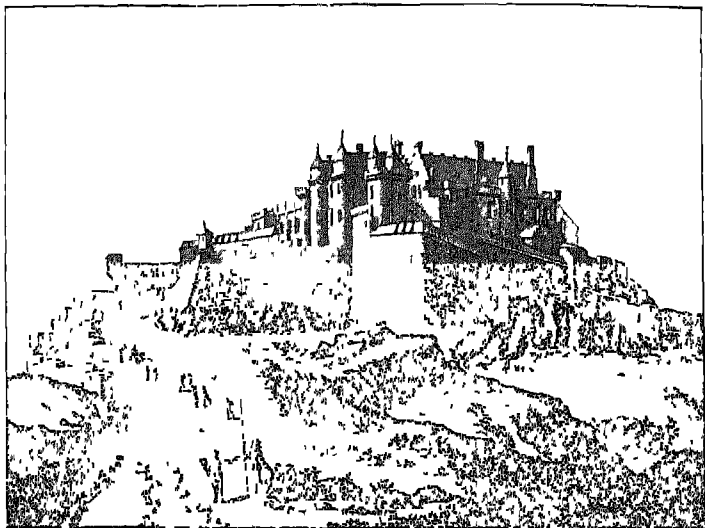
Scotland in the thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries

by the English soldiers. The English marched farther north, and defeated the Scots with great slaughter at Dunbar in 1296. Balliol surrendered, and resigned his throne. Edward marched through Scotland, treating the Scots with the greatest cruelty, and then returned to London, bringing with him from Scone the stone on which the Scottish kings were crowned. It was placed in Westminster Abbey, and has remained under the coronation chair used by English sovereigns ever since.

William Wallace

Edward left English governors in Scotland to maintain order; and although the Scottish nobles, who were mostly of Norman descent, remained loyal to Edward, William Wallace, a commoner, who had slain an English sheriff in a quarrel, drilled an army of poor people, and raised his standard against the English, defeating their forces at Stirling in 1297.

Hearing the news of defeat, Edward marched into Scotland, overthrew the Scots at Falkirk, and gradually regained the country for the English. Wallace fled, and lived as an outlaw for some years. At length he was handed over to an English sheriff by a man who had sworn allegiance to Edward, and from thence he passed into Edward's hands. The English king condemned him to death as a traitor. To this charge the brave Scotsman replied. "To Edward of England I cannot be a traitor, for he is not my king, and I never was his subject." Wallace was hanged, and his body, after it had been cut



Stirling Castle as it was in the seventeenth century

into four pieces, was fixed on the gates of Newcastle, Berwick, Stirling, and Perth, as a warning to Scots against further risings

Robert the Bruce

This outrage fanned the flame of Scottish patriotism, and soon a new hero, Robert the Bruce, a grandson of that Robert Bruce who had claimed the throne of Scotland, rose to lead the Scots. He was crowned as their king in 1306. He was at first defeated by the English and driven into hiding, but later he managed to overcome the English forces at Loudon Hill

King Edward, now an old and sick man, rose from his bed to avenge this defeat; but the effort was too



A view of Stirling Castle from a distance, showing the castle on its rocky height overlooking the plain. The river is the Forth

great for him, and he died just as he reached the borderland. He commanded his son Edward to continue his wars, and to carry his bones into battle against the Scots. On his tomb in Westminster Abbey is engraved "Here lies Edward, the Hammer of the Scots".

Edward II and Scotland

Edward II, disregarding his father's dying wish, at once returned south, where he passed his time in the company of worthless companions. Chief

amongst these was Piers Gaveston, an ill-bred Gascon, who, when left as regent while the king was abroad, became so overbearing that the nobles seized and beheaded him.

Edward II and Bannockburn

Meanwhile Bruce and his troops were rapidly gaining ground in Scotland, winning back all the castles except Stirling during the next seven years. The governor of Stirling agreed to hold the castle for a year, and then, if Edward II did not come to his help, to surrender to the Scots.

Public indignation was so great at the carelessness and laziness of Edward in regard to Scotland, that he collected an army of 100,000 men in June, 1314, to relieve Stirling. He met Bruce's army of 30,000 near Bannockburn. It was chiefly good generalship that won the day, the English being hopelessly beaten. They were completely driven from Scotland, and the Scots began to ravage the north of England. Edward II continued to mismanage affairs in England until, in 1327, Parliament, thoroughly dissatisfied with the king's laziness and bad government, deposed him. Eight months later, he was brutally murdered in Berkeley Castle, where he had been imprisoned.

Independence of Scotland

Scotland was now a free country, for Bannockburn had removed any doubts about English claims to overlordship. It was not, however, until 1328, in the first year of the reign of Edward III, that, by the Treaty of Northampton, nicknamed by English-

men "the shameful peace", the King of England gave up all claims on Scotland. Thus was lost all that Edward I, the Hammer of the Scots, had so ardently desired and so strenuously fought to win.

Edward III and Scotland

Bruce died a year after the Treaty of Northampton, leaving the Scottish throne to a child, his son David. This gave Edward Balliol, son of John Balliol, a chance to reassert his claim to the throne. As before, the English king supported Balliol; and to enforce his claim, marched an army into Scotland, defeating the forces of David Bruce at Halidon Hill in 1333. Then Balliol became king, but only for a very brief space; for the Scots resented this king who had been forced on them by the English, and eventually he was driven across the border. The young King David, who had been sent to France after the defeat of his supporters at Halidon Hill, returned to Scotland, backed by Philip VI of France, who promised to help him whenever the English attacked Scotland.

Trouble in Gascony—the only remaining foreign possession of England—now caused Edward III to give up his fruitless enterprise against Scotland and turn his attention to the French. This was the end of the Balliol claim to the throne of Scotland, but it was by no means the end of Anglo-Scottish warfare. The two countries lived at daggers drawn for almost three hundred years, and hatred of one another continued long after 1603, when they were joined, and James VI of Scotland became also James I of England.

TIME CHART OF EVENTS

1150-1328

A D	Famous Events	Famous People
1150	1154-1189, Henry II	Thomas Becket
1200	1189-1199, Richard I 1189-1192, Crusades. 1199-1216, John 1215, Magna Carta 1216, Henry III.	1206, Stephen Langton.
	1258, Civil War Henry III v Simon de Montfort	Simon de Montfort.
	1272, Edward I. 1284, Conquest of N. Wales	Llewellyn.
1300	1296, Battle of Dunbar 1307, Death of Edward I 1314, Battle of Bannock- burn 1328, Treaty of Nor- thampton	William Wallace Robert Bruce.

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

THE WELSH

Britons—driven out—settled in Wales—hunters—fishermen—herdsmen—clothing—language—Eisteddfod

BORDER WARS.

Welsh chiefs—border lords—stone castles

EDWARD I AND LLEWELLYN

Homage refused—Llewellyn's defeat—Snowdon—peace—David—death of Llewellyn and David

FIRST PRINCE OF WALES.

Born in Carnarvon Castle—king's eldest son

HOW SCOTS BECAME FREE.

Four kingdoms—joined—border warfare—King of Scotland—prisoner—released—promise

MAID OF NORWAY

Marriage—conditions Death of Margaret—plans spoiled.

BALLIOL

Selected by Edward I—homage—crowned at Scone—appeals—quarrel—joins France

EDWARD I ATTACKS SCOTLAND

Berwick—Dunbar—Balliol resigns—Scone—Westminster

WILLIAM WALLACE

Raised army—Stirling—Falkirk—outlaw—handed over—death

ROBERT BRUCE

Crowned king—Loudon Hill—death of Edward I—Scotland regained—Stirling Castle—Bannockburn

EDWARD II

Wishes of father—Piers Gaveston—bad rule—deposed—death.

INDEPENDENCE OF SCOTLAND

Bannockburn—result—Treaty of Northampton.

EDWARD III AND SCOTLAND

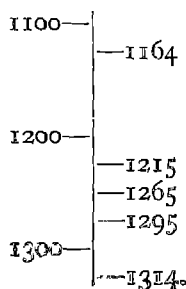
David—Edward Balliol—Halidon Hill—Balliol's flight—
David's return—Gascony—1603

EXERCISES

1. Say what you can about Llewellyn
2. Write one fact about each of the following: Eisteddfod, stone castles, Snowdon, Elinor de Montfort, Carnarvon
3. What steps had English kings taken before the time of Edward I to suppress the Welsh border raiders?
4. Write a few lines about the Welsh people as Edward I found them
5. What were Edward I's reasons for interfering with Scotland?
6. Why was Edward I called the "Hammer of the Scots"?
7. Say what you can about Maid of Norway, Dunbar, Scone, Gaveston, Edward Balliol
8. How did the Scots regain their independence?
9. What part did William Wallace play in Scotland's struggle against England?
10. What commands did Edward I give his son on his deathbed?
11. Who led the Scots at Bannockburn? Say all that you can about him

MAPS

1. Draw a map marking all the places connected with Edward I's campaigns in Scotland.
2. Name the events connected with the dates given in the following time line:



REVISION EXERCISES

1. Write a description of the life of a monk.
2. Say all you can about the Model Parliament, mentioning who composed it, who summoned it, and why it was so called
3. To what events do the following refer. (a) "Hue and cry"; (b) "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?"; (c) "To Edward I of England I cannot be a traitor, for he is not my King, and I never was his subject."

EXTRACTS

EDWARD I AND WALES

1. A.D. 1283. "After the death of Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, and the escape by flight of his brother David, all the rest of the Welsh, both the nobles and common people, having voluntarily submitted to the King's pleasure, he reduced under his dominion the whole of Wales to the Irish Sea. All the castles and fortresses were delivered up to him, he introduced the English laws, and appointed justices and other officers to keep the peace, and fixed the exchequer of Wales and the officers of the treasury at Chester."—*Florence of Worcester's Chronicle*.

EDWARD I AND JOHN BALLIOL

2. AD 1291 "In the year 1291 died Margaret daughter of Eric King of Norway, lawful heir to the throne of Scotland, and in the same year a conflict began between these two, John Balliol and Robert Bruce, for the right to succeed and reign in the kingdom of Scotland. At length the King of England Edward I came to Berwick at the invitation of the Scottish nobles and gave judgment there to John Balliol.

"On the last day of November 1292, John was made King at Scone, and with due ceremony and pomp, was crowned according to custom in the royal Cathedral there. On the 26th December of the same year, he did homage for the kingdom to Edward I King of England, according to a secret promise he had previously made, and thus subjected himself to perpetual bondage, against the will of all except a few of the greater nobles of his kingdom"—Fordun *Chronica Gentis Scotorum* (i.e. "The Chronicle of the Scottish People")

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1.

What did Edward I do to establish his rule in Wales?

EXTRACT 2

Who were the two chief claimants to the throne of Scotland? Which one was chosen and by what method?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL
READING

Tout *Edward I.*

Sir Walter Scott: *Castle Dangerous*, and *Wallace and Bruce* (from *Tales of a Grandfather*)

G A Henty *In Freedom's Cause*

Jane Porter. *Scottish Chiefs.*

NINTH PERIOD

ENGLAND AND FRANCE

Hundred Years' War—1st Part—1337-1396. Causes

The war which Edward III now embarked upon with France was brought about for the following reasons.

1. Philip VI of France made an alliance with Scotland against England.

2. The King of France was constantly making raids on Gascony, our only remaining French possession.

3. French interference with English merchant sailors trading between England and Flanders.

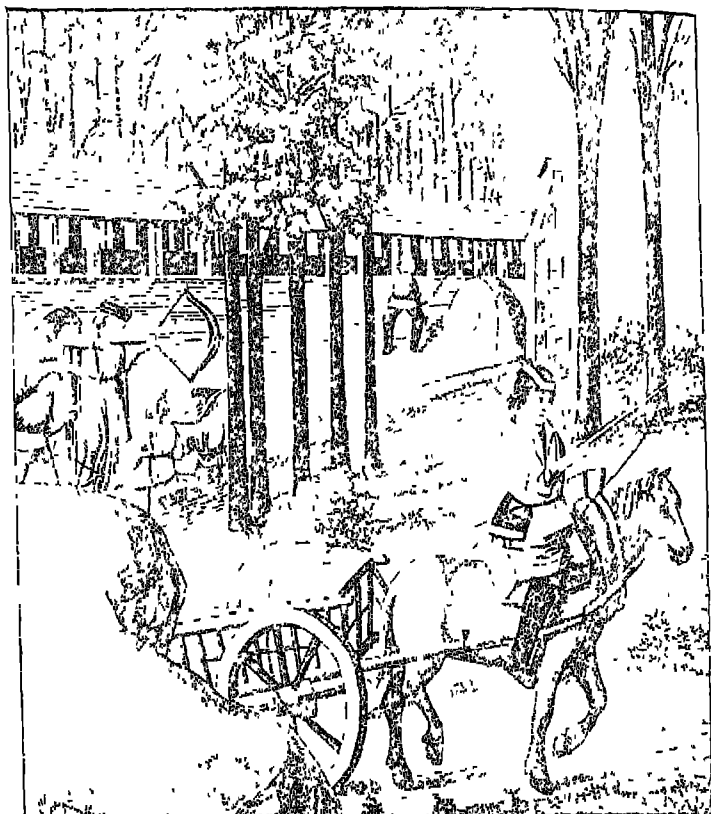
4. Appeal by the Flemish people for Edward III's protection, to enable them to carry on the wool trade between England and Flanders.

5. Edward III claimed the French throne through his mother, who was a French princess.

Age of Chivalry

The English nation rose as one man to support its king against the French, and for the first time in history our great national spirit of patriotism showed itself strongly.

Edward III was right in wishing to protect his merchants and foster the wool trade between England and Flanders, but his claim to the French



Shooting at the Butts with Cross-bows A drawing made in the
fifteenth century

throne was so weak that it could only be regarded as a mere pretext to make stronger his excuse for war. However, being supported by all classes of Englishmen, who had now been welded together into one nation, Edward III had no difficulty in obtaining the money necessary to raise and support an army; while the barons flocked eagerly to fight for Edward.

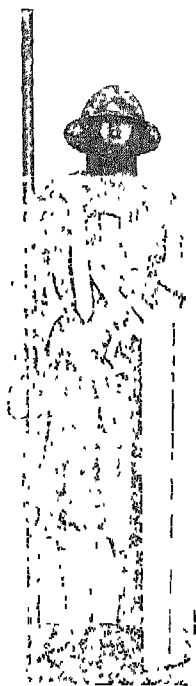
Although this war has been called the Hundred Years' War, because it lasted from the middle of the fourteenth century to the middle of the fifteenth century, there were long periods of truce when no fighting was done.

Battle of Sluys

The first event of importance was the Battle of Sluys, 1340, in which the French fleet was completely destroyed. This gave Edward III the command of the Channel, enabling him to get his troops safely across from England to France without further interference.

New Methods of Fighting—The Archers

The greatest of Edward III's battles in France was Crecy, which he won in 1346, aided by his gallant son, the young Prince Edward, generally called the Black Prince from the colour of his armour. This battle is noteworthy because it was the infantry and bowmen who really won the day for England. They were paid soldiers from the ranks of the village free-men, who, for some years, had spent most of their leisure time practising shooting, at the butts on the village green, till, at a hundred yards' distance, they could pierce the stoutest armour.



French Soldier of the
fourteenth century

The French cavalry, clad in the heavy armour of feudal times, was mown down with ease by the English archers in the battles of Crecy (1346) and Poitiers (1356).

Treaty of Bretigny

Fighting continued until 1360 when, by the Treaty of Bretigny, Edward III gave up his claim to the French throne, in return for the full sovereignty of Calais, Ponthieu, and Aquitaine.

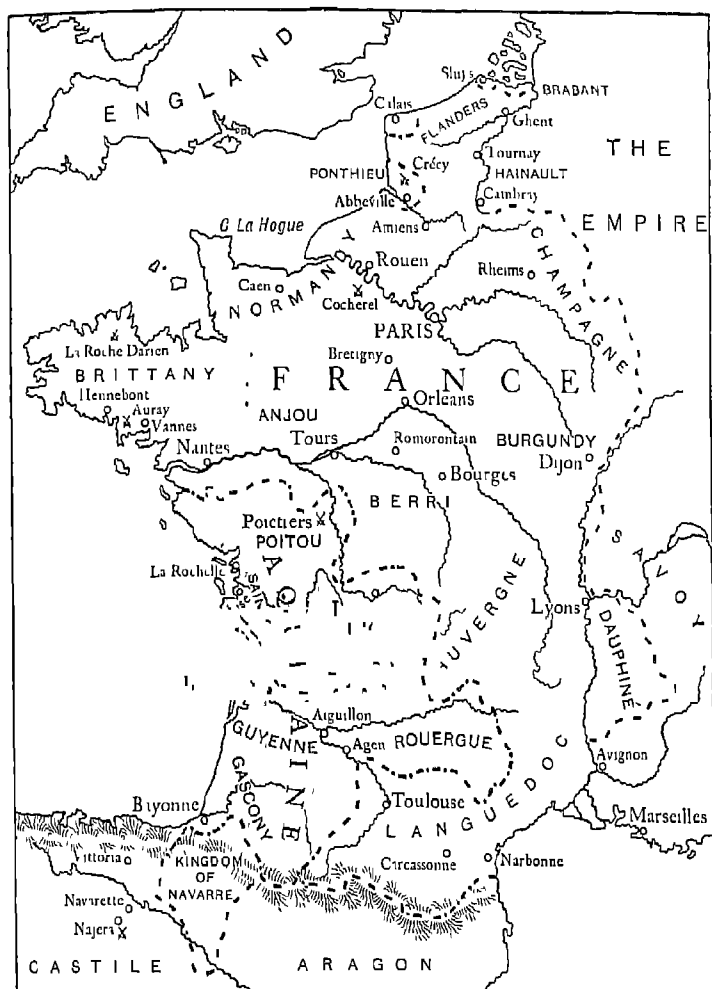
The Black Prince was sent out to govern these lands. For a time all went well, but when the Gascons were taxed heavily by Prince Edward, to pay for a war in which he had rashly taken part to help a Spanish prince, they refused to pay, and appealed to the French king for help.



One of Bertrand du Guesclin's soldiers

War Reopens

So war broke out anew, and Bertrand du Guesclin, the leader of the French, by adopting entirely new methods against the English, turned the tide of fortune in favour of France. He refused to meet the English in pitched battle, retreating, or retiring into his castles, whenever battle seemed likely. Thus the English troops marched from place to place, footsore, weary, and hungry, for the land



Edward III's French Dominions

The shading shows the part of France held by the English after the Treaty of Bretigny in 1360

had been laid waste in the earlier campaigns of the war.

Finally the Black Prince, now a sick man, returned to England, his health shattered, and he died in 1376. The old King Edward III died a year later, having lost all his French possessions except Calais and one or two ports. So all the terrible years of war came to nothing in the end; and the first part of the Hundred Years' War closed with the advantage on the French side.

The Black Death

In 1348, two years after the Battle of Crecy, there swooped down on England and the rest of Europe a deadly pestilence called the Black Death. So terrible a scourge was it that, for five years, even the quarrels between the English and the French were silenced.

The plague started in China, and merchants travelling across Asia with bales of Chinese goods brought it to Europe, whence it spread rapidly through Italy and France, and then across to England.

Speedily it passed from village to village, and was so deadly that more than a third of the population died of it. Rich and poor alike fell victims to the scourge, but the people in the towns suffered most; for they lived in tiny houses which had no proper drainage, their water supply was often made foul by the refuse left about outside their doors; while the streets were narrow and sunless.

Effects of the Plague

As the Black Death had killed nearly half the villeins, it was impossible to find a sufficient number of peasants to carry on the work of the manors in the same way as they had done in earlier times. Everything was thrown into confusion.

As labourers became scarce, those who survived the pestilence demanded higher wages, and in many cases where the Lords refused, they either moved to another manor where better terms could be obtained or ran away to take shelter in the towns. Actually the wages of the peasant class were doubled; but those landlords who resisted the higher payments appealed to Parliament for assistance in forcing the labourers to work under their old conditions.

Edward III issued a proclamation ordering that no man should demand or pay higher wages than were prevalent before the Black Death. The Statute of Labourers in 1350 fixed the scale of wages for employer and employed, and threatened to punish with imprisonment or to brand with hot irons any labourer who left his lord.

Acts of Parliament proved useless, however, for the landowners were glad to get labourers at any wage rather than allow their corn to lie rotting, their sheep and cattle to stray, and their lands to get out of cultivation. Moreover, those who refused to break the new laws lost many of their few remaining labourers through desertion.

Food prices did not increase at the same rate as wages. Although there was a smaller supply of

food available because there was less land under cultivation, yet there were fewer mouths to feed because of the Plague.

A great rise in prices took place in articles which depended entirely on the efforts of the labourer, such as wheels, agricultural implements, and iron work. This affected the landowners chiefly, many of whom, discovering it would be impossible to continue their old system of farming, turned their corn lands into sheep pastures—the rearing of sheep having the additional advantage of requiring fewer labourers.

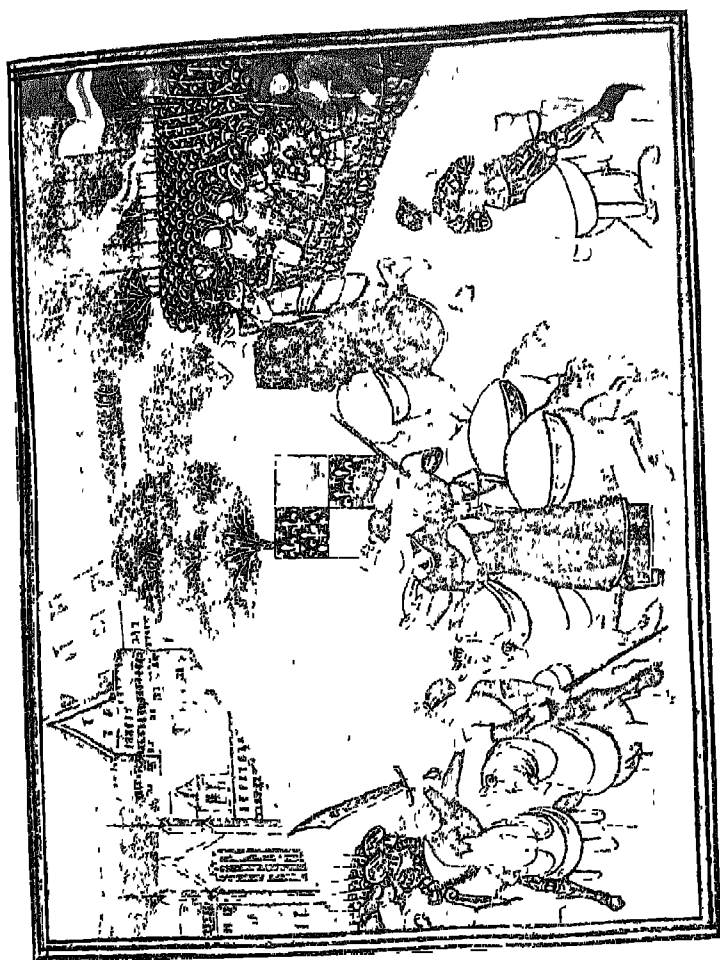
The Peasants' Revolt and Richard II

Many feudal landlords endeavoured to force extra work on their villeins, and often demanded higher rents from the farmer classes to meet the heavier costs of labour. This caused growing discontent among the poorer people, at a time when a spirit of independence, hitherto unknown, was spreading among the peasants of England. The rhyme of John Ball, a wandering preacher of the time—

“ When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?”

—passed from mouth to mouth; and a new tax, levied on every person above fifteen, fanned the flame of discontent, until in 1381 the men of Kent, led by a blacksmith named Wat Tyler, openly revolted.

In 1377, at the age of eleven, Richard II, son of the Black Prince, succeeded his grandfather Edward III when all this unrest was spreading throughout the



The death of Wat
Tyler, as drawn by
a fifteenth-century
artist

country. The boy king with his officers met the rebels in London, whither they had marched with their leader, Wat Tyler. He found them a motley crew—"Armed with clubs, rusty swords and axes, with old bows reddened by smoke of the chimney corner, and old arrows with only one feather"—and showed great bravery in dealing with this large peasants' army. It was now 100,000 strong, for men from other counties all over England had joined them, and on their march they had plundered and burned everything they could lay their hands on, destroying, whenever possible, the manor rolls in which it was recorded that they were villeins. Wat Tyler was stabbed by the Mayor of London for his insolent manner to the king, and the angry mob, seeing their leader slain, called out, "Let us fight and die together." In that moment of grave danger, the king rode bravely into their midst, promising to lead them and put right their wrongs. These promises of freedom quieted the rebels, who soon dispersed and returned to their homes.

Richard did not fulfil his promises, and the rebels were punished with great severity. For a time the peasants were forced back into the bondage against which they had rebelled. This rising, however, dealt the death blow to villeinage; for the lords found that the men worked so badly when they were not free, and ran away so frequently, that they themselves came to see that a man who was free worked better than a serf. A hundred years after the peasants' revolt, there were very few villeins left in England.

The Towns and their Gilds

In Roman times the towns grew around the great camps; examples of these were: Colchester, Lancaster, Chester, Exeter, &c, the names being derived from the Latin word " castra ", a camp. When the Saxons invaded Britain, the Roman towns either fell into decay or were destroyed; for the newcomers shunned walled cities. In an earlier chapter, an Anglo-Saxon village has been described. It was just a collection of huts, built around the chief's hall. These villages were self-supporting and self-contained, and the occupants generally spent all their lives within the border of the forest land which surrounded them.

King Alfred founded about forty burhs, or fortified towns, for refuge in times of Danish raids; and all the inhabitants were the tenants of some great lord, or of the king.

When the Normans conquered England, the feudal system became the rule everywhere. The great castle of the Norman baron was the centre round which his vassals and villeins settled, and in this way many new towns were established.

Again, the monasteries often formed the centre round which a town developed. Peterborough and Wells are examples. Towns sprang up on the coast, either for defence against invasion—for example the Cinque ports—or as centres of foreign trade—for example Deal, Dover.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries many villages grew into towns owing to their flourishing trade in wool, skins, and leather.



The Shambles, York, a street built in the middle ages
From the uppermost of its overhanging stories you might shake hands with your
neighbour across the street

The market was always the most important place in the town, for there the people from all around came to buy and sell their goods.

Permission to hold a market had to be obtained from the lord of the manor, who drew up rules to secure fair dealing in these town markets. In Anglo-Saxon times, any purchase above twenty pence had to be made in the presence of some trustworthy witness. For the upkeep of the market, tolls were levied on all who sold goods, as is done to-day in market towns. Townspeople were granted special privileges, and paid smaller tolls than outsiders. Fines for disobeying the rules of the market, collected by his bailiff, were also a source of revenue to the lord of the manor, to whom the early markets brought in a good income. If the town belonged to the crown, the taxes were paid to the sheriff of the county, who also presided over the court where offenders against the market laws were tried.

How the Towns obtained their Charters

Many sheriffs did not merely collect that which was due to the king, but extorted large sums over and above this, which they kept for themselves. Further, they often accepted bribes from offenders, who hoped in return to escape punishment when they broke the market laws. Thus the sheriffs became very unpopular with the townspeople, who gradually obtained the right to manage their own affairs, and to appoint their own mayor and officials. These privileges were recorded in charters obtained from the king or their overlord, and were



London in the fourteenth century

Notice the Tower of London, old London Bridge with houses built upon it, and the wall protecting the city on the north

usually granted in return for large sums of money.

In the reigns of Stephen, Richard I, Edward I, and Edward III, the kings needed much money to pay for their wars. So, many of the towns on the royal manors obtained their charters of freedom by paying large sums of money to obtain:

- (1) The right to choose their own officials for town government
- (2) The control and regulation of the trading in their own markets.
- (3) The right of freedom for villeins who had resided in the towns for a year and a day.
- (4) Their entire release from the yearly payments which had been due to their overlord

During the Crusades, many of the barons left England with a large number of their retainers to fight in the Holy Land. It cost the barons large sums of money to equip and maintain themselves and their retainers on their journeys, and during the long time they were abroad To get this money, many barons sold their manorial rights. In this way, many more towns obtained their charters of liberty.

Gilds

In an Anglo-Saxon village, one smith, one miller, one carpenter, one tanner, &c., sufficed to supply the needs of the small community to which they belonged, but as the villages grew into towns, the number of men engaged in each trade greatly increased

Thus associations or merchant gilds were formed



Craftsmen of the fifteenth century

A mason and a carpenter proving their skill before a gild warden

in nearly all the towns during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. And all workers were required to belong to the gild, for with the exception of outside merchants, who were required to pay a heavy toll so that they could not undersell the local

trader, only the gild members were allowed to trade in the markets of the town.

The merchant gilds regulated the number of workers in each industry, to prevent overcrowding. They watched the quality of the goods produced, to see that they were not inferior. They regulated prices, and arranged that all trading must be done in the open, so that all dealings should be honest. They helped the widows and orphans of their members, and provided relief for the aged, sick, and needy. Thus the Gilds did much useful work in seeing that the goods sold were of good and proper quality, and that no dishonest trading took place. They also were able to assist the members when help was needed.

Craft Gilds

So long as the towns were small, the merchant gilds were effective. But in the growing towns the craftsmen increased so rapidly that it became impossible for one gild to supervise properly the various trades of the town. So each trade formed a gild of its own, and these were called craft gilds. The work of the craft gilds was practically the same as that of the merchant gilds.

To become a member of one of these gilds, an apprenticeship of seven years had to be served. For this it was usual to demand a heavy fee, to prevent overcrowding in that particular industry. Further, each master-man could only have a limited number of apprentices, and these were required to satisfy him as to their skill before they could apply for full

membership of the gild, and also to pay a large sum of money for admission when they had qualified.

As time went on, the gild members tried to keep their numbers as small as possible, since, by keeping down their membership, more work would result for each individual who belonged to it. This greed ultimately ruined them, and by the end of the sixteenth century the gilds had almost disappeared.

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

HUNDRED YEARS' WAR—CAUSES.

- (a) Age of chivalry—spirit of patriotism—Edward's French claim—chivalry—barons
- (b) Battle of Sluys—date—result
- (c) Crecy and Poitiers—dates—result—infantry—bowmen—Black Prince
- (d) Treaty of Bretigny
- (e) War reopens—reason—Du Guesclin—method of fighting.
- (f) Deaths of Black Prince and Edward III
- (g) Results of the war

THE BLACK DEATH

Terrible scourge from China—townspeople suffered most—reasons

EFFECTS

Manorial system—thrown into confusion—reasons—statute of labourers—food prices—prices of implements—sheep farming.

PEASANTS' REVOLT.

Causes—extra work—higher rents—new tax—Wat Tyler—Richard II—death of Wat Tyler—action of Richard II—result—peasants punished—death blow to villeinage

TOWNS AND GILDS

- (a) Making of a town Camps—fortified towns—castles—monasteries—coast towns—trade towns—market towns
- (b) Charters Sheriff's duties—unpopular—charters—privileges—crown lands—barons
- (c) Gilds Why formed—their work.
- (d) Craft gilds Why formed—their work—apprenticeship—difficulty of full membership—cause of disappearance.

EXERCISES

1. Give as many reasons as you can for the Hundred Years' War
2. What do you know of the following Sluys—Crecy—Portiers—Treaty of Bretigny?
3. Write a few lines about the Black Prince.
4. Give a short account of the Black Death, including some of its results
5. Why were the peasants discontented?
6. What part did Richard II play in the peasants' revolt?
7. How did towns spring up (a) In Roman times, (b) In Alfred's time, (c) In Norman times, (d) In later Middle Ages?
8. Why were craft gilds formed, and what work did they do?
9. How did the townspeople buy their charters of liberty, and what privileges were obtained by these charters?
10. Write about four lines on each of the following: Wat Tyler, villeinage, merchant gilds, Gascony, bowmen.
11. Explain how full membership of a craft gild was secured
12. To what incidents do the following quotations refer.
 - (a) "When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?"
 - (b) "Let us fight and die together"

- (c) "Why good people I am your King and your Lord
What is it you want? What do you ask of me?"

MAPS

Indicate the position of the following places on a map:
Kent, Crecy, Poitiers, Calais, London

EXTRACTS

THE BLACK PRINCE AT CRECY

1 "Early in the day some French, Germans and Savoyards had broken through the archers of the prince's battalion, and had engaged with the men-at-arms; upon this the second battalion came to his aid, and it was time they did so, for otherwise he would have been hard pressed.

"The first division, seeing the danger they were in, sent a knight off in great haste to the King of England, who was posted upon an eminence near a windmill. On the knight's arrival he said, 'Sir, the Earl of Warwick, the Lord Stafford, the Lord Reginald Cobham, and the others are vigorously attacked by the French, and they entreat that you will come to their assistance with your battalion, for if the numbers should increase against him, they fear he will have too much to do.' The King replied, 'Is my son dead, unhorsed, or so badly wounded that he cannot support himself?' 'Nothing of the sort, thank God,' rejoined the knight, 'but he is in so hot an engagement that he has great need of your help.' The King answered, 'Now Sir Thomas, return to them that sent you, and tell them from me, not to send again for me this day, nor expect that I shall come, let what will happen, as long as my son has life, and that I command them to let the boy win his spurs, for I am determined that if it please God, all the glory of this day shall be given to him, and to those into whose care I have entrusted him.'"
—*Battle of Cressy—Froissart's Chronicles* (Froissart was a French chronicler who lived in the 14th century).

PREACHING OF JOHN BALL

2 "Every Sunday after Mass, as the people were coming out of Church, this John Ball was accustomed to assemble a crowd around him in the market place and preach to them. On such occasions he would say, 'My good friends, matters cannot go on well in England until all things shall be in common, when there shall be neither vassals nor lords, when the lords shall be no more masters than ourselves. Let us go to the King and remonstrate with him, he is young, and from him we may obtain a favourable answer, and if not we must ourselves seek to amend our condition.'"—*Froissart's Chronicles*

EXERCISES ON EXTRACTS

EXTRACT 1

1 Write in your own words the King's reply to the messenger who asked for help for the Black Prince

2 What King is referred to in this extract, and when did this battle take place?

EXTRACT 2

1. Give in your own words the preaching of John Ball

2 What resulted from this and other similar preaching?

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL
READING

J A Biendon *England in the Middle Ages*

Froissart *Border Warfare under Edward III and Richard II, Crecy and Poitiers*

Sir C Oman. *England and the Hundred Years' War*

C. Gross *The Gild Merchant.*

Henty *A March on London and Saint George for England*

William Morris *Dream of John Ball*

F Converse *Long Will*

C M Yonge *Lances of Lynwood*

Conan Doyle *The White Company*

H Newbolt *Stories from Froissart.*

TENTH PERIOD

END OF THE MIDDLE AGES

John Wycliffe and the Lollards—1320-1384

At the end of the reign of Edward III, there were many people who strongly objected to the demands of the popes for money from England. And it appeared to be a fact that pardons and indulgences for any sort of crime could always be obtained, provided sufficient money was paid for them.



8

The Canterbury

1 Miller	2 Host	3 Doctor of Physic	4 Squire at Law
10 Yeoman	11 Parson	12 Nun	13 Lady Prioress
14 Clerk	15 Pardoner	16 Friar	17 Monk

John Wycliffe, a Yorkshireman who had gone to Oxford and become Master of Balliol College, was the founder of a great religious movement known as Lollardy. The teachings of the followers of Wycliffe were directed against the wealth, the laziness, the unworthy lives of churchmen, friars, and monks, and what was regarded as the general greed of churchmen. Wycliffe claimed that as all the church services were in Latin the people could not understand them, and he said that the clergy were not teaching the true doctrine of Christ. To enable the people to read the Bible for themselves, Wycliffe translated it from Latin into English, and exhorted



Pilgrims

5 Merchant 6 Knight 7 Reeve 8 Squire 9 Ploughman,
of Oxford 15 Chaucer (with back turned) 16 Shipman 17 Wife
22. Citizen 23 Cook 24 Carpenter.

them to read the gospel. Wycliffe's followers became known as the poor priests, and they travelled up and down England, living a life of poverty and preaching simple sermons to the peasant classes.

The Church leaders were alarmed at Wycliffe's teaching, and the Archbishop of Canterbury summoned him to be tried for what he had written against the Pope and the clergy. John of Gaunt, a powerful noble, took Wycliffe's part, and his trial was dropped.

So long as Wycliffe refrained from attacking the doctrines of the Roman Church many people supported him, but when he began to condemn the teachings of the Church they were against him, and wished to burn him as a heretic. It was 150 years after Wycliffe's death before the English Church ceased to recognize the Pope as its head, and during that time many Lollards were burned as heretics. Wycliffe will always be remembered as the translator of the Bible. He was the first great writer of English prose, and for his teachings against the Roman Church he has been called "The Morning Star of the Reformation".

The Canterbury Pilgrims

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, pilgrimages were frequently made to the tomb of a martyr, such as Thomas à Becket. As travellers in those days were frequently attacked by highwaymen, and even by small bands of foreign soldiers, it was usual to travel in parties.

The best description we have of a band of pilgrims



The Tabard Inn, London, as it was before it was pulled down in 1874

is found in the *Canterbury Tales*, written by Geoffrey Chaucer, the first great English poet, who lived in the reign of Edward III. In these tales, we have the truest picture of English social life in the Middle Ages, and can learn much about the habits and customs of the people living in Chaucer's time. Further, this great masterpiece of Chaucer was written in English, which was a blend of Saxon and Norman; and from his time it became usual for Englishmen to write in their own tongue rather than in Latin or French, as had been done in earlier times.

The *Canterbury Tales* describe how a gay company of twenty-nine pilgrims set forth from the Tabard Inn, London, for the shrine of Becket at Canterbury. As they rode along, each of the pilgrims told a tale to enliven the journey.

In his prologue, Chaucer described his fellow travellers, who included all classes of people. There was the "very parfaite gentyl knyghte", his young son the squire, and their servant, a sturdy yeoman, clad in coat and hood of green with his bow in his hand. Then a monk followed, whose costly garments and fat jovial face seemed out of harmony with his calling. A friar was another of the company. Chaucer called him "the best beggar of his house", and said he was more familiar with the innkeepers and taverns in every town than with the sick and needy, to whose care his brethren were supposed to devote their lives. The only worthy churchman Chaucer described was the poor parson, meek and gentle, with no worldly wealth, but a heart of gold. These and many more—the Clerk of Oxford, the buxom wife of Bath, a ploughman, Reeve, and miller—rode together in good fellowship; and the tales they told are recounted by Chaucer in joyous and humorous verse which is a delight to read.

The Vision of Piers Plowman

Before passing from literature, mention must be made of a book which appeared a little earlier than the *Canterbury Tales*. It was called *The Vision of Piers Plowman*, and was written by Will Langland. In it the worldly and wicked lives of the clergy and

nobles were exposed. This book, together with the preaching of Wycliffe and the Lollards, had the effect of arousing the anger of the peasants against the injustices of the manorial system, and led to the revolt of the peasants in Richard II's reign, and to the gradual improvement in the social position of villeins.



Ploughing in the fourteenth century

Of course books were not printed in these days. They had to be written and copied over and over again. We know that there are 45 copies of the *Vision of Piers Plowman* still in existence to-day.

Parliament of the Middle Ages—Richard II's Mis-government

When Richard II became king in 1377 he was too young to govern England himself, and for a

time the government of the country was placed in the hands of his uncles.

Later, Richard II made favourites of Michael de la Pole, whom he made Earl of Suffolk, and Robert de Vere. His uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, and four other nobles, accused Richard's ministers, Pole and Vere, of treason, and as a result the "merciless" parliament condemned them to death. For a year, the country was ruled by these five nobles, and then Richard himself took charge of the government. For eight years he ruled England wisely. Then suddenly, in 1397, he altered his method of government, making a determined effort to rule as an absolute king, without any control whatever from parliament. He collected forced loans or benevolences, which he had no intention of repaying, he sold charters freely, and obtained sufficient money to make himself independent for a time.

Richard Deposed

Richard banished many nobles from the country and seized their property. Finally, in 1399, Henry of Lancaster, a grandson of Edward III, landed with an armed force to claim his inheritance which the king had unjustly seized, and the now unpopular king found few friends. He was captured, and Parliament deposed him, bestowing the crown on Henry of Lancaster. The next year Richard II was found dead in Pontefract Castle, where he had been imprisoned.

Parliament had proved victorious in its struggle against the king, and the country had asserted the right to say by whom it should be governed.

Henry IV of Lancaster—1399–1413. The Growth of Parliament

Parliament had placed Henry on the English throne, and meant to control him. From time to time Parliament claimed the sole right to impose taxation, and on every occasion when the king wanted money, demanded redress of grievances before any supplies were granted, and inquired carefully into the ways the king had spent his money. It was in this reign that the House of Commons obtained the right to fix the taxes, and to present their petitions to the king by word of mouth instead of in writing. Thus the power of Parliament was growing apace.

Rebellions

In addition to his troubles with Parliament, Henry IV was harassed by constant rebellions.

In Wales, the great national hero, Owen Glendower, rebelled.

The Scots, led by Douglas, invaded the north of England. At the battle of Homildon Hill, in 1402, they were defeated by the Percies of Northumberland. Later, Henry IV offended the Percies, who were dissatisfied with the rewards they had received for the defeat of the Scots. They combined with Douglas, the Scottish leader, and marched southwards to unite with Glendower, the rebel Welshman. They were met by the royal forces at Shrewsbury in 1403 and defeated. Their leader, Harry Hotspur, was killed, and in the following year at Bramham Moor, the Duke of Northumberland was also slain.

Persecution of the Lollards

In order to gain the friendship of the clergy, Henry IV passed a statute which said that people who believed things of which the Church did not approve should be handed over to the sheriff to be burned alive. These people were called heretics, and the earliest sufferers by this new law were Lollards, the followers of John Wycliffe.

Death of Henry IV—1413

Worn out with the cares of government, Henry IV died at the early age of forty-five. Very truly Shakespeare, in his play, *Henry IV*, which was written two hundred years later, made this monarch say, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown".

Henry V and the Hundred Years' War—Part Two

There had been no fighting in France during the reigns of Richard II and Henry IV, but on the accession of Henry V, in 1413, the king immediately began to prepare once more for war.

He had several reasons for doing this

1. He revived the claim of his grandfather, Edward III, to the throne of France
2. The English nobles were on the point of civil war, and Henry V thought that by diverting their minds from their own quarrels he might win their united loyalty and support.
3. The French were engaged in civil war; while their king, Charles VI, was mad.
4. Henry hoped to increase the wool trade between England and Flanders.

The war was popular with all classes in England. The barons' greatest sport was fighting, so they rejoiced, the Church was torn with quarrels, and the preaching of Wycliffe and the Lollards had drawn the attention of the nation to the lazy way of living which many churchmen had adopted, and had also directed men's attention to the great wealth of the church. Thus they were glad, as they thought the war would make men forget their weaknesses. The merchant classes, who hoped to gain from the increased trade which war brings, also supported the king wholeheartedly.

Henry crossed the Channel in 1415. He landed at Harfleur, which fell to the English after a hard siege and the loss of about a third of their men. Henry then marched through Normandy, and won a great victory at Agincourt in 1415, where he employed the same tactics as Edward III had used at Crecy and Poitiers. The French cavalry in heavy armour were beaten down mercilessly by the English archers, who rained arrows on them from their longbows.

In no other battle did the French suffer such a crushing blow, and Henry sailed back to England in triumph.

Henry V was a born soldier, and did not remain long at home, as he returned to France the next year. Success followed success, and by the Treaty of Troyes in 1420, it was agreed that Henry should marry the French king's daughter and succeed to the French throne on the death of the king. Henry, England's warrior king, did not live to achieve the goal of his ambition to be crowned king in Paris,



A mounted French Soldier in the armour worn at the middle of the fifteenth century

for he was stricken with illness and died in 1422, just two months before the French king.

Two things are noteworthy about Henry V's French campaign:

- (1) He built a royal fleet.
- (2) He was the first to use guns extensively, these being employed in his ships, and on land.

Thus he avoided the long weary sieges that Edward III's army had suffered, the town walls soon being battered down by Henry's guns

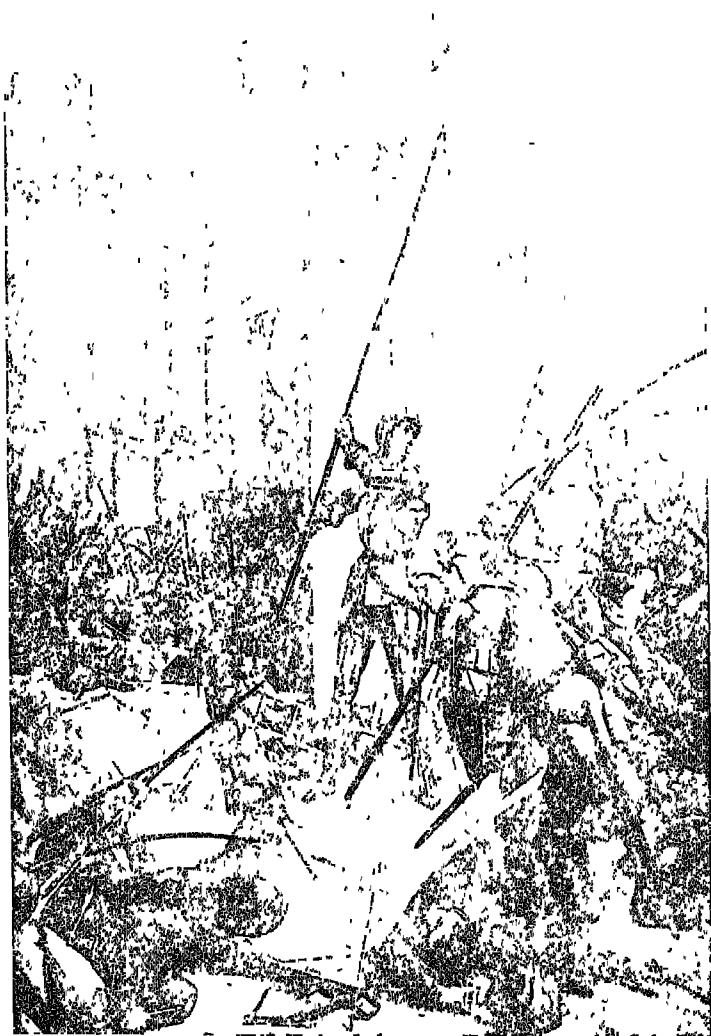
Joan of Arc

Henry V's successor was an infant nine months old. The baby's uncle, the Duke of Bedford, a wise and able ruler, claimed the French throne for his nephew when Charles VI of France died

Most of the French people supported the rightful heir, the Dauphin; but he was lazy, and Bedford gained victory after victory in the north of France. At last, only Orleans remained in French hands.

Then a young maiden of seventeen, Joan of Arc, arose and saved France. She was the daughter of a peasant who lived in Domremy, and she tended her father's flocks. Joan is said to have been inspired by visions and divine voices, and at last demanded that she be taken to the Dauphin. "This is no work of my choosing," she said, "but I must go and do it, God wills it." It is well known how, clothed in a suit of white armour, on a white charger, she led the French army from one triumph to another. The English thought that she was a witch who won her battles by witchcraft, but the rough French soldiers regarded her as a saint.

She succeeded in getting the Dauphin crowned King of France at Rheims in 1429; then, regarding her life work as finished, she begged to be allowed to return to her peasant home. She was, however, detained by the French king, and later, when she fell into the hands of the English, no one raised a



Joan of Arc at the Relief of Orleans

finger to save her. She was treated with great brutality, and taken to Rouen, where she was tried as a witch. To the shame of everyone concerned, Joan of Arc was condemned, and burned in the market-place where her statue now stands.

An English soldier who witnessed her death muttered, " We are lost, we have burned a Saint ". The tide of fortune had definitely turned in favour of France, and by 1453 nothing remained to England but Calais. So ended the most fruitless war in which England ever engaged.

Wars of the Roses: Causes

The wars in France were over, but now began great troubles at home, where discontent was rife everywhere. The poor peasants, sorely pressed for money to pay the taxes which had been necessary to carry on the long wars abroad, and greatly affected by the growth of sheep farming at the expense of agriculture, were in a very bad way. On the south coast, bands of French sea pirates were constantly landing to pillage and burn the homesteads of the farmers, causing great distress to those attacked. The nobles, home from the wars, continued to keep large bands of sturdy serving men and armed retainers, whose lawlessness soon became the terror of every peace-loving citizen; some of these men set all laws at defiance, obtaining what they desired by violence and robbery.

This was the England Henry VI grew up to rule. He proved too weak and gentle, his disposition too quiet and harmless to keep in check the fierce quarrels of barons, peasants, and churchmen.

Jack Cade's Rebellion

In 1450 the peasants rebelled under Jack Cade. Cade posed as a cousin of Richard, Duke of York, for whom he claimed the English throne. The outrages committed by Cade's followers shocked everyone, for they robbed and slew all who stood in their path. The citizens of London drove the rebels back to Kent, Cade being mortally wounded while engaged in single combat.

Trouble now arose between the Duke of York and the Duke of Somerset. A fit of madness made government by Henry VI impossible, and the Duke of York demanded the right to control affairs for the mad king. This he did for a time, wisely and well, but the birth of a son to Henry VI made the likelihood of the throne passing to the Duke of York very remote, and so he openly claimed the English throne.

War Begins

As the descendant of the third son of Edward III, the Duke of York's claim was a better one than that of Henry VI, who was descended from the fourth son of Edward III. But the Duke of Somerset and Queen Margaret took up arms to establish the claim of Henry VI's infant son.



The Armour worn by Knights in the middle of the fifteenth century

In 1455 began those wars usually called the Wars of the Roses, from the fact that the House of York took as its badge a white rose, and the House of Lancaster wore a red one. For thirty years England suffered from the bloodshed and misery which these civil wars brought. The early battles were mostly victories for the Yorkists; but at the Battle of Wakefield in 1460, the Lancastrians were victorious and the Duke of York was slain. His son, Edward, at once took over the leadership of the Yorkist party, and after several victories, was crowned king in 1461.

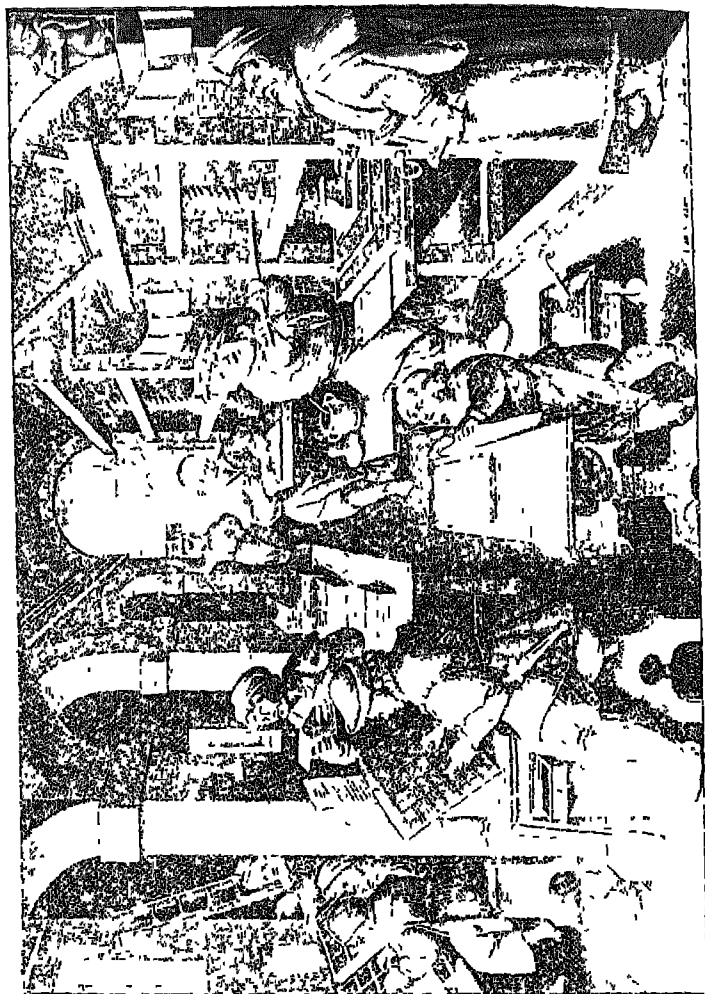
Warwick the King-maker

A very powerful noble, the Earl of Warwick, had been Edward IV's right-hand man in helping him to gain the throne; and for this he became known as the king-maker. However, Edward offended him by refusing to act as his puppet, and obey his wishes in everything. Enraged at this, Warwick joined the Lancastrian party. Edward IV, taken completely by surprise, fled to France, but he soon returned, and defeated and slew the Earl of Warwick at the Battle of Barnet. Shortly afterwards, Queen Margaret saw her son slain before her eyes, and she herself was taken prisoner. The Lancastrians were now completely crushed.

Introduction of Printing

Edward IV reigned peacefully for the rest of his life, but an event of the greatest importance took place in England during his reign.

Up to this time all books had been written by



In a Printer's
Workshop in
the sixteenth
century

hand, generally by monks, churchmen, and friars. These books were often illuminated with gold and bright colours, and were very beautiful to look at. But it was such a lengthy and costly business to produce books, that they were very scarce.

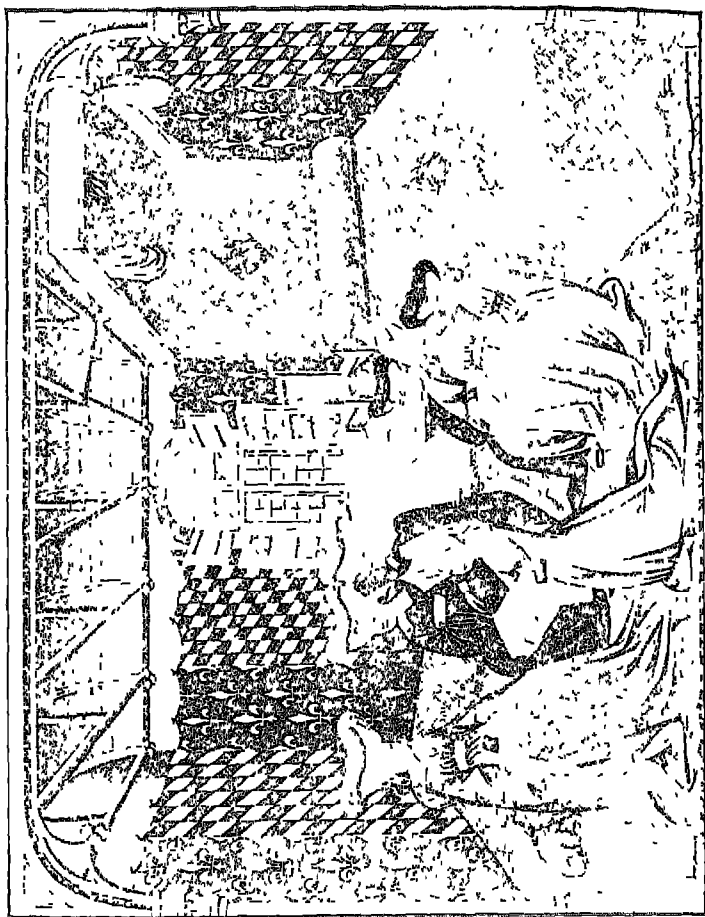
In Germany a printing press was invented, by means of which copies of a book could be printed quickly. And an English merchant, William Caxton, who had learned the art of printing while on a visit abroad, set up the first English printing press in London in 1476.

In the course of time many more printing presses were set up, and as books became plentiful and cheap, more people could read and learn from them. Thus learning became common, and the far-reaching results of this you will see in the next book.

End of Wars of the Roses

Edward V, a boy of thirteen, succeeded his father, Edward IV, in 1483, but he only reigned two months. Both he and his brother, generally called the Princes in the Tower, were murdered by their uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, who became Richard III. He reigned two years, and in 1485 Henry Tudor, heir to the House of Lancaster, rose against him, and met Richard III's forces in the Battle of Bosworth Field. The king's army was defeated, and Richard died fighting valiantly.

Thus ended the Wars of the Roses, and the Plantagenet line of kings. Night closed on Mediæval England, and a new age dawned with the great Tudor Dynasty.



A room in a palace at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Notice the couches and the carpet on the floor.

TIME CHART OF EVENTS

1300-1500

AD	Famous Events	Famous People
1300		
	1327-1377, Edward III	John Wycliffe
	1349, Black Death	
1350		Chaucer.
	1377-1399, Richard II	
	1399-1413, Henry IV	
1400	1413-1422, Henry V.	Joan of Arc.
	1422-1461, Henry VI	
1450	1461-1483, Edward IV	Wm Caxton Earl Warwick.
	1476, Caxton Press.	
	1483, Edward V	
	1483-1485, Richard III	
	1485, Battle of Bosworth	
1500		

HEADINGS AND HINTS FOR NOTES

END OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

John Wycliffe and the Lollards Oxford—Balliol College—Lollardy—teachings against rich and Church—translated Bible—followers—their work—Archbishop of Canterbury—John of Gaunt—Roman Church—Heretic—"Morning Star of the Reformation"

Canterbury Pilgrims: Pilgrimage—Tomb—travelling dangers—Canterbury Tales—Chaucer—social life—habits and customs—written in English—description of Pilgrims.

Vision of Piers Plowman: Langland—clergy—nobles—against manorial system—result.

PARLIAMENT OF THE MIDDLE AGES

Richard II 1 Favourites 2 Merciless Parliament.
3 Absolute rule of Richard 4 Richard deposed
5. His death 6 Parliament's victory.

HENRY IV OF LANCASTER

1. Growth of Parliament—House of Commons. 2 Rebellions: (i) in Wales, (ii) in Scotland. 3 Persecution of the Lollards. 4 Henry's death

HENRY V

War with France Harfleur—Agincourt—Treaty of Troyes—Henry's death.

JOAN OF ARC.

Peasant girl—inspired—white armour—witch—her triumph—capture—death.

WARS OF THE ROSES

- Causes 1 House of York 2. House of Lancaster.
 3 Earl of Warwick (king-maker)

PRINTING

Caxton—first printing press—result—cheaper books—
spread of learning.

PRINCES IN TOWER

Murder of Princes—Richard III—Henry Tudor—Bosworth Field

EXERCISES

- 1 Write a few sentences to show the work of John Wycliffe
2. Give a short account of the Canterbury Pilgrims
- 3 What do you know of the following Chaucer, Langland, Merciless Parliament?
- 4 Give reasons which indicate that the power of parliament was growing in Richard II and Henry IV's reigns.
5. Say what you know about the rebellions in Henry IV's reign
- 6 Why did Henry V renew hostilities with France?
- 7 Mention two noteworthy features of Henry V's campaign in France
- 8 State one fact about each of the following Jack Cade, House of York, Earl of Warwick, Queen Margaret, Barnet, Bosworth
9. What great event took place in the reign of Edward IV, and why was it so important?

EXTRACT

DEATH OF JOAN OF ARC

"For trial, the lord regent's leniency gave her nine months stay, at the end whereof she was thereupon delivered over to secular power, and so executed by consumption of fire, in the old market place at Rouen, in the self-same stead where now St Michael's Church stands. Her ashes afterwards without the town's walls shaken into the wind." —*Holinshed's Chronicle* (Holinshed lived in the 16th century. Shakespeare used his chronicles for his historical plays)

EXERCISES ON EXTRACT

1. To what event does the extract refer?
2. Write a short account of the life of Joan of Arc.

BOOKS FOR REFERENCE AND ADDITIONAL
READING

Brendon. *The Age of Chaucer*
 Chaucer. *Canterbury Tales*
 Commynes. *Warwick the Kingmaker*.
 A. G. Bradley. *Owen Glendower*
 Henty. *Both Sides of the Border* and *At Agincourt*.
 J. Buchan. *The Path of the King*
 W. Barry. *Henry V*
 Stevenson. *Black Arrow*
 Armitage. *Red Rose and White*.

TWELVE MEMORABLE DATES

- 55 B C Julius Cæsar's first invasion of Britain
597 A D. Introduction of Christianity into Britain by Augustine
871 Alfred the Great became king.
1066 Battle of Hastings—William the Conqueror defeated Harold
1215 John signed Magna Carta
1265 Simon de Montfort killed at Battle of Evesham
1314 Battle of Bannockburn—Bruce defeated Edward II
1346 Battle of Crecy—French defeated by Edward III and Black Prince
1415 Battle of Agincourt.
1453 Fall of Constantinople
1476 Caxton introduced printing into England.
1485 Battle of Bosworth Field—Richard III killed.
-